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ART. I.—*An History of Marine Architecture. Including an enlarged and progressive View of the nautical Regulations and naval History, both civil and military; of all Nations; especially of Great Britain; derived chiefly from original Manuscripts, as well in private Collections as in the great public Repositories: and deduced from the earliest Period to the present Time. By John Charnock, Esq. F.S.A. 3 Vols. 4to. 9l. 9s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.*

AMONG the conquests of man over the impediments and difficulties thrown in the way of his various pursuits, none is more striking and brilliant than his victory over the ocean. The horse he can tame, to add to his speed; the abstemiousness and the structure of the camel render the sandy desert no longer unpassable; and on the ice, with his skaits or rein-deer, he can travel with safety and velocity. A passage over the ocean, however, was, during a time, impracticable; for we do not reckon it to have been subdued by the crossing of an inlet, or a timid coasting excursion from one projecting promontory to another. Yet even voyages of extent and enterprise occur in early æras; and, had the desire of commerce and gain among the Phœnicians left room in their hearts for the nobler triumphs of literature, we should have had nautical descriptions of much greater extent, than the confined, meagre, and disputed narrative of Hanno. The views of the antiquary on this subject coincide with those of the scientific inquirer; and each is anxious to explore the history of navigation, and the means by which it is effected, as among the noblest exertions of the human mind.

The account of the ancient marine, in the preface, is short and unsatisfactory. It is singular that little is said of the Phœnicians; and the mind of the Romans must have been, in our author's opinion, 'narrowed by the circumscribed knowledge of natural philosophy, geography, and astronomy,' which mankind then actually possessed. The Romans did not indeed aim at naval discoveries; but, when they had a maritime opponent, they showed that their genius was as conspicuous in naval tactics, as in military evolutions. The knowledge of geography among the

Romans was far from circumscribed. The Phœnicians had extended their voyages beyond the Pillars of Hercules, and, by *some* route or other, had reached the Baltic. They knew or had heard of a great northern island, called, by them, Thulé; and, were the geographic parts of Pliny's Natural History to be selected—a plan we have long since recommended—it would be found that the knowledge of the Romans in this science was extensive, rather than limited. If we admit the truth of the Argonautic voyage—nor can the outline be easily disproved—the adventurers must have ascended the Phasis, and by some communications with the great rivers which fall into the Baltic, have reached that sea. Many such communications still exist, with a very inconsiderable portage; and the Argo is represented to have been portable. Mr. Charnock is indeed correct, when he says that the splendid descriptions of some of the ancient ships convey a confutation of their own statements. In the infancy of the art, such voyages were impracticable; and we should want little further proof that the history of Sesostrius is fabulous, than the account of the vessel he is supposed to have built. Yet, on the other hand, unless our author had quoted 'the most accurate inquirers,' whom he refers to, 'who have admitted that neither decks nor beams were introduced into ships till a considerable time, *even centuries*, after the Trojan war,' we cannot pay much credit to their assertion. In fact, we have no foundation to rest on. It may be true; but the opposite opinion may be equally admitted.

'In regard to the extended numbers of vessels composing the fleets of antiquity, the case is different, and no such exception will lie; but fancy, in some instances, portrays to itself a visionary picture, and gazes on it with admiration till it becomes convinced of its real existence. It would be an historical heresy, according to the opinion of many, to compare the most inconsiderable vessel in Agamemnon's fleet to a modern boat; yet it is an indisputable fact, that although the dimensions of that vessel might, in some instances, be superior, its form and character of construction were exactly the same. The galleys of war, when the custom of naval hostility was introduced, and gradually advanced in general practice, were certainly improved, and perhaps enlarged; but the peculiar exigences of the state, and the mode of fighting then practised, not requiring an attention to those points which have become necessary since the revival of the science in modern times, the ease with which vessels were at that time built, rendered it possible for a powerful nation to send forth an armament as formidable, in respect to numbers, as it thought proper, or could find persons to navigate and man it.' Vol. i. p. xiv.

The Grecian ships were, we know, not formed for active war, but, as Thucydides expressly tells us, built in 'the manner of freebooters,' calculated for security, and for making descents. These circumstances, with the necessity there was

that whole armies of Greeks should reside in them for months, lead us rather to suspect that they *had* decks. Our author is more correct in his account of their size; for we are told by Homer, that Hector seized with his *hand* the stern of Protesilaus's ship. The ships on this occasion, it is said, exceeded 1000; but the population of Greece, at that æra, will not allow twenty men to each on the average, even though war and plunder were the only business of those early maritime, or rather piratical, states.

When our author descends to comparatively modern times, or to the middle ages, his account is somewhat more distinct, though still vague and uncertain. We see nothing of the northern powers of the Baltic, except so far as they are connected with English history, and the invasions of this kingdom. Yet, in that sea, naval exertions were considerable, and naval war was frequent among the petty sovereigns of its shores. Several facts of this kind are adduced by Mr. Forster, in his Account of the Discoveries in the North—a work that Mr. Charnock seems not to have seen. The first authentic testimony of the birth of the British navy is, according to our author, the invasion of Normandy by Henry (Beauclerk) in 1106; and the crusading expeditions, which followed, contributed in some degree to 'cherish the infant in its puling youth.'

The different æras of the naval history of Britain follow; to which is added, 'a chronological and *brief minute* of the different naval occurrences,' with a list of the fleet which besieged Calais in 1347, and an account of the expenses attending it.

After the period of the third Richard, marine architecture, it is observed, becomes intimately connected with nautical pursuits and events. 'This subject, taken in its full extent, might be carried through folios heaped on folios, till study sicken at the task, and turn, with apparent dismay, from the mountain of labour.' This indeed would be the case, were there not a spirit of condensation, a general comprehensive view to be taken, of which our author, from his practice, seems not aware. The division of maritime history by sir Walter Raleigh, who meditated a work of this kind, is subjoined; but, though such a history would have been highly curious, the different chapters should not be adapted to a similar work of the present day. Sir Robert Slingsby's (comptroller of the navy) Discourse, which may be considered as the '*civil* history of the *then* existing navy,' though the æra be not mentioned, and Gibson's Observations on the Military Department and Arrangement subsequent to the Year 1603, are subjoined. The latter remarks are admirable in respect to the seamanship displayed, the criticisms on the conduct of former commanders, and the very pointed contrast between seamen superintending ships, and land-officers

placed in that service—a circumstance too common after the restoration.

The history itself does not claim our commendation. Subjects are started or incidentally mentioned, and seldom pursued. Marine architecture is traced to the Phœnicians and Egyptians, without discrimination between the rude conveyances over a river, and ships built to brave the ocean. We have, after this, the more ancient claims of the Chinese, without any inquiry into the real chronology of either nation, or the date of marine architecture in each. In the chapter on commerce, and its tendency to promote marine architecture, we find only vague ideas respecting the Phœnician commerce, and a proof that the Phœnicians were acquainted with the British islands, because their appellation, *Cassiterides*, is from the *Greek*; and the solitary story of the Phœnician pilot, who stranded his ship, because he was watched by a Roman, converted into general orders. Our author has caught a glimpse of one trait of ancient history, in the fable of Erythras; but is unacquainted with its force or consequences; and confounds Sesostris with Danaus. In short, the superficial compilation of Huet would have taught him more; and Clarke, in his *Connexion of the Roman and Saxon coins*, would have elucidated the subject better in a few lines, than Mr. Charnock has done in as many quarto pages: not even is Ezekiel, nor the historical books of the Old Testament, once quoted, when speaking of the Tyrians.

The construction of the ancient ships is the subject of the sixth chapter; and in this we find a long and intricate disquisition respecting the different banks of oars. General Melville has elucidated this point much more completely in a short compass. The seventh and eighth chapters very indistinctly pursue the subject of marine history and marine architecture in different branches. The Indian word *canoe* is derived from the Latin *canna*, a reed, a language which the Indians never knew. The various modes of offensive war, as applied to the marine, are explained, particularly the use of fire-ships. It is singular, however, that, in all these disquisitions, we have scarcely a reference to any ancient author. In one or two places, the words of the author are transcribed without a reference to the passage; and, with the exception of the grappling-irons, where we find quotations from Quintus Curtius, Livy, and Polybius, we have authorities, without being enabled to appreciate the author's accuracy by a designation of the page or section.

The ninth and some of the following chapters contain a cursory history of marine architecture. This narrative, during the reign of the emperors, by the assistance of the luminous energetic Gibbon, becomes interesting, and would appear to ad-

vantage, did not the contrast of his brilliancy render the meagre poverty of Mr. Charnock more conspicuous. Except also when assisted by Mr. Gibbon, we are without the shadow of authority, and do not find a single trace of laborious research, or a single fact added to the former stock, from an industrious examination of original authors. From the Romans, our historian passes rapidly through the middle ages; and, in this part of his work, fixes on the prominent historians; whence he proceeds, in the compass of a few pages, to the Saxons, and their invasion of England.

We now seem to reach a modern æra; but, as the history of the conquerors introduces that of the conquered, we go back with our author to the source of the population of England, their early simple marine, and the invasion of Julius Cæsar. It is not easy to find more crudities and inconsistencies within a short compass, than in the account of the early population of Britain. The Celts came, it is said, from Asia, at last from Gaul: they peopled, according to Mr. Charnock, the whole island, even the western parts of Scotland, and thence migrated to Ireland, which owed its population to Scotland. Since the torch of history has illuminated, though not very brilliantly, this obscure subject, we could have wished that our author had borrowed a single spark. The naval history of Rome, so far as it is connected with Britain, is continued till the decline of the empire, when that of the Saracens or Mohammedans succeeds, which is again followed by some notice of the Venetian and Andalusian freebooters.

Mr. Charnock next treats of the marine history of the northern nations, intermixing the Russians with the Scandinavians, the Swedes, and Danes, of the Baltic, slightly mentioning the Slavonian origin of the Rossi, and not once hinting at their source from the ancient Sarmatæ. They were undoubtedly confounded, when they first attracted the notice of the Byzantine court, with the Swedes and Danes; but their real source has been long since explained. Under the guidance of Gibbon, our author describes the first knowledge the Byzantine emperors had of this hardy northern race; and it is followed by a short account of the piratical expeditions of the Croatians; but here his 'guide, philosopher, and friend,' no longer aids his feeble efforts.

The fourteenth chapter commences with a description of the galleys of the ninth and tenth centuries; and from this part, as affording a short comprehensive view of the structure of the ancient vessels of war, we shall extract a specimen.

'Historians have remarked, and with the strictest propriety, that the system of naval war had received no improvement subsequent to the time of the Peloponnesian and Punic contests, so that as a natural

consequence, the science of marine architecture was to be considered as stationary. Some authors, suffering their ideas of excellence to be absorbed in the accounts of those immense vessels, of which the almost incredible histories of the early ages have transmitted an unintelligible description, have supposed it very rapidly on the decline; and as an incontrovertible proof of the justice of their opinion, have observed, that the method of constructing vessels, fitted even with three or four tiers of oars only, rising above each other, was as much unknown to the artificer of the eastern empire, as it is to the modern ship-wright. This is certainly taking the subject in the most modest point of view, *triremes* and *quadriremes* being undoubtedly as much inferior to the accounts given of some of the vessels constructed by the ancients, as a modern sloop of war is to a first rate. The gallies composing the Constantinopolitan fleet, in the ninth and two succeeding centuries, were stiled *dromones*: they were fitted with two tiers of oars only, each tier containing twenty-five benches, on which were seated fifty rowers, making in the aggregate one hundred men, who worked the oars on both sides of the vessel; so that the number of oars was equal to that of the persons employed to manage them, which could not have been the case, had the tiers been multiplied so as to render the oars otherwise than extremely short and light. To the persons already mentioned, who were to be considered in the lowest class of mariners, was to be added the captain, or commander, who in the hour of engagement took his station on the poop, as well for the purpose of viewing the occurrences which might take place during the encounter, as for that of directing the efforts of his people to any particular exertion, and also that of encouraging them by his voice and gesture. Two steersmen were stationed at the helm, and two officers at, or near the bow: to one of the latter the care of the anchor was entrusted, and to the other the management of the tube of Greek fire, which supplied, and perhaps with more dread effect, the place of modern ordnance. The remainder of the crew performed, in conformity with the custom of the early ages, the compound office of mariners and soldiers, being alternately or jointly employed in directing the course of the vessel, annoying their foes, or defending themselves from the attack.

Independent of that tremendous mode of annoyance just mentioned under the name of the Greek fire, the arms of offence were long pikes, nothing varying from the modern implement bearing the same name, together with bows and arrows. The latter supplied the place of musquetry: the archers being stationed on the upper deck, while the pike was equally engaged in the annoyance of the foe, through the row ports of the lower tier. Although the bulk of the fleet is unequivocally said to have been composed of vessels of the above description, yet it is not contended but that there were a few gallies of more enlarged dimensions, whose crews consisted of three hundred persons, seventy of whom were soldiers, and the remainder mariners. These vessels were probably intended, (a practice which has never since been discontinued) for the admiral gallies, their numbers being so inconsiderable, as to cause them to be esteemed rather as an excrescence from the science, than as an example of its established rules. Necessity appeared indeed to have prescribed to the marine architects of that time,

the limits to which they were permitted to extend their art, in regard to the dimensions of vessels. Not only the art of navigation, considered as a science, but that more common branch of it, the method of managing a vessel in case of storms, or contrary winds, was little understood, the gallees themselves being calculated only for a tranquil sea.' Vol. i. P. 255.

' The ancient principles of naval war, or what are generally known by the name of tactics, appear at this time to have been revived; for the change, if any, from that very remote æra when the fleets of Athens put to sea in the patriotic but almost desperate attempt of withstanding the power of the Persians, was very immaterial. The disposition for naval encounter was that of a crescent, with the horns inward; the van, or first division, which might more properly be stiled the center, endeavouring to assail and destroy its adversaries by the impression of the beaks; and in this circumstance, did the Greeks, and other subjects to the eastern empire, materially differ in their management, and opinion, from their Venetian allies. In the center of the deck was erected a machine, or engine, for the purpose of throwing large stones and darts of an extraordinary size, in annoyance of the enemy; a contrivance somewhat similar, in its situation and effects, though with less dangerous and more contracted powers, to that of the mortars in a modern bomb ketch. A strong frame of timber was erected in the midship of the galley, bearing almost a strict analogy to the principle of the mortar bed, which served not only to support the weight of the engines just mentioned, but also, on certain occasions, a crane, which raising, as was the custom in the Punic wars, and the infancy of Roman consequence as a maritime power, a number of armed men, conveyed them instantly on board the galley of the enemy, whenever it was deemed expedient and prudent to attempt its conquest by boarding. The code of signals, by which in modern times the intention of the admiral is as explicitly made known through a whole fleet as though he gave his orders in person, was then extreme incorrect; and though the nautical manœuvres were very simple, and few in number, yet the method of directing them was confused, and extremely inadequate to the purpose. Still, however, the principle was the same with that used by the moderns, a self evident proof, that the want of practice, on the part of the ancients, was the sole cause of the imperfection alluded to. The colour and varied position of the flags hoisted on board the admiral, or commanding galley, indicated the course the fleet was to steer, or in action, the measures which it was to pursue, during the day; while the different disposition, or number of lights, on board the same vessel in the night, became equally expressive of the commander's intention. Still, however, the practice was confined to the general and common manœuvres of bringing to, chasing, attacking, retreating, dispersing, or rallying; and, whenever finer movements were necessary, the skill of the officer became useless, owing to the want of power in the indication of his intention.' Vol. i. P. 257.

The author 'turns his eye at once' to a distant quarter, and gives a summary of the naval history of England from the Nor-

man conquest. With somewhat more connexion, Mr. Charnock follows the naval history of the Normans, who were, in the eleventh century, invited by the Sicilians to free them from the Scandinavian pirates, and who, under Guiscard, made the emperor of the east tremble on his throne. The whole of the narrative, so far as relates to Robert and his son, is excellent: but the merit is Mr. Gibbon's. He is sometimes quoted: in several places, he is copied with the slight acknowledgement of 'say historians,' and frequently without any information of the source. The scene of Robert's exploits naturally, however, leads to the marine history of the Venetians, and to that of Genoa. This part of the work is by no means full, but sufficiently satisfactory: nor do we find any passage which can be the subject of criticism or commendation. Our historian, from the marine history of the Genoese, slides into that of France, and partly that of England, by the slight connexion of Philip of France hiring Genoese ships. The victory which gave to the English the great superiority at sea, *viz.* in 1340, though the exact period and the scene of action are omitted, is shortly noticed; and the author hastens to the history of the Spanish marine, adding only the following paragraph, applicable to the present moment.—May it be again realised!

'Wearied, however, with this long and ignominious restraint, Philip at length resolved to attempt the invasion of England, in order to try if, by transferring the scene of war into the country of his antagonist, he could possibly compel the recall of those hornets which tormented him daily. To this end, he not only used every possible exertion in augmentation of the navy of France itself, but adopted those means before practised, and which were still more effectual, of hiring a very considerable number of the largest vessels or ships, that could be procured, from the Genoese. The assemblage of the naval as well as military force was very nearly completed, when the vigilance of Edward frustrated the whole plan. Philip was under the necessity of bending his whole attention to the protection of his own kingdom, which was itself invaded by the king of England in person. John, who succeeded to Philip, was still more unfortunate than his predecessor had been. He was not only taken prisoner by the English at the fatal battle of Cressy, and his country subsequently ravaged by a desperate banditti, but its finances so completely ruined by these and other events, that it was in no situation whatever to make any naval exertions during the remainder of his own reign, or that of Charles the Fourth, who succeeded him, and died about the year 1380.'

Vol. i. p. 314.

After the Spanish maritime history, Mr. Charnock notices that of Portugal, of the Neapolitans, Saracens, Danes, Russians, and Swedes; gives some account of the association called from the Hanse towns; and details the naval events in maritime history, from the conquest to the death of Edward III,

with the state and practice of marine architecture at that time. In this part of the work, Edward's naval victory is more fully detailed, though the narrative is still too general and indistinct. Some observations on the state of the shipping at that period, we shall transcribe.

'It is moreover remarked, as a curious circumstance attendant on this encounter, that gallies and beaked vessels were totally laid aside for the first time, since though the use of ships, as vessels of a different construction from gallies were then called, had been partially adopted for many years, yet in every preceding action which had taken place, even in the Atlantic, where the use of gallies became most exploded, they had been intermixed with the loftier vessels, built according to the newly introduced system. On board the latter, the archers and slingers, supplying the place of the modern musquetry men, or marines, were stationed near the prow and stern; the centre or midship was, as before observed, filled with the various engines then in use, contrived for the purpose of throwing large darts and stones, which were not long afterwards supplanted by the introduction of cannon. The French fleet was divided, according to the report of some authors, into three, or as others insist, four divisions, one of which consisted entirely of ships belonging to the Genoese. The whole armament, but particularly the division last mentioned, was abundantly provided with every necessary engine and weapon, intended for the annoyance of their antagonists, a point of equipment more materially conducive, perhaps, to success, in the state naval tactics were at that time, than even the condition of the ship which bore them: the event of contest not depending so much on the excellence of the vessels themselves, or the skilful management of them, as on the hardy prowess of the combatants, who, closing with each other, fought desperately hand to hand, as had been the custom many centuries earlier, when Rome was in the zenith of its power.' Vol. i. p. 341.

Oars, at that time, were not dis-used, though sails were chiefly trusted. The ships were much shorter than galleys: their stems and prows greatly elevated. The masts were generally single, and never exceeded two in number; the sails square, and the yards lowering down on the deck, like those of a modern lugger. The planks overlapped each other, with a sufficient caulking between.

The last chapter in this volume again starts away to the east; and we suspect that Mr. Charnock aims also at the character of a poet, as well as an historian; for he implicitly follows one of Horace's rules—*'modo me Thebis, modo ponit Athenis.'* In short, this chapter defies an analysis: every nation is crowded into the picture, to bring down the history, at the conclusion of the volume, to a given point—about the end of the fifteenth century.—But, without a plan, without the assistance of a table of contents, without a reference to authorities, what can we say of a work? To pursue each assertion without a guide, is to sail without a compass: to hasten from the mari-

time history of one nation to another—to return repeatedly to the former subject—to resume the half-told tale, a story not ended, but to be again pursued—is a tedious and disgusting task. As the author proceeds, his language is more polished, and his opinions more elegantly and perspicuously detailed. He has caught some of the brilliancy of his guides; and, though the patch-work be still obvious, we read, for a time at least, without disgust, if not with pleasure. In another article we shall conclude our account of the work; but may now remark, that it is printed very elegantly, and adorned with numerous and well-executed plates. Those of the first volume chiefly relate to the ancient marine architecture; and represent different kinds of galleys, and other vessels of an early æra.

(*To be continued.*)

ART. II. — *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border: consisting of historical and romantic Ballads, collected in the Southern Counties of Scotland; with a few of modern Date, founded upon local Tradition.* 3 Vols 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.

THESE three interesting volumes are dedicated to the duke of Buccleugh by Walter Scott, esq. They perform for Scotland that task which the bishop of Dromore performed for England, by publishing *The Reliques of Ancient English Poetry*. The materials are analogous: the selections are made with equal taste: the corrections are insinuated with similar dexterity: the original compositions are manufactured in suitable costume: if they be less simple and natural, they are more stimulant and fanciful, than the poems they imitate. The Scottish reliques of Percy might have been advantageously included in this collection: no tragic ballad occurs here equal in pathos to the deeply-affecting and horrible—

‘ Quhy dois zour brand sæ drop wi’ bluid
Edward, Edward?’

The introduction concerns the history of the Scottish border: the century intervening between 1450 and 1550 appears to have abounded most with those predatory incursions which formed the manners, and occasioned the incidents, here commemorated. After narrating the more prominent circumstances of these feuds, the author thus continues:—

‘ In these hasty sketches of border history, I have endeavoured to select such incidents, as may introduce to the reader the character of the marchmen, more briefly and better than a formal essay upon their manners. If I have been successful in the attempt, he is already

acquainted with the mixture of courage and rapacity by which they were distinguished; and has reviewed some of the scenes in which they acted a principal part. It is, therefore, only necessary to notice, more minutely, some of their peculiar customs and modes of life.

‘ Their morality was of a singular kind. The rapine, by which they subsisted, they accounted lawful and honourable. Ever liable to lose their whole substance, by an incursion of the English, on a sudden breach of truce, they cared little to waste their time in cultivating crops, to be reaped by their foes. Their cattle was, therefore, their chief property; and these were nightly exposed to the southern borderers, as rapacious and active as themselves. Hence, robbery assumed the appearance of fair reprisal. The fatal privilege of pursuing the marauders into their own country, for recovery of stolen goods, led to continual skirmishes. The warden also, himself frequently the chieftain of a border horde, when redress was not instantly granted by the opposite officer, for depredations sustained by his district, was entitled to retaliate upon England by a warden raid. In such cases, the moss-troopers, who crowded to his standard, found themselves pursuing their craft under legal authority, and became the favourites and followers of the military magistrate, whose duty it was to have checked and suppressed them. See the curious history of Geordie Bourne, app. No. II. Equally unable and unwilling to make nice distinctions, they were not to be convinced, that what was to-day fair booty, was to-morrow a subject of theft. National animosity usually gave an additional stimulus to their rapacity; although it must be owned, that their depredations extended also to the more cultivated parts of their own country.’ Vol. i. p. lvii.

The favourite superstitions of the borderers are thus particularised:—

‘ It is unnecessary to mention the superstitious belief in witchcraft, which gave rise to so much cruelty and persecution during the seventeenth century. There were several executions upon the borders for this imaginary crime, which was usually tried, not by the ordinary judges, but by a set of country gentlemen, acting under commission from the privy council.

‘ Besides these grand articles of superstitious belief, the creed of the borderers admitted the existence of sundry classes of subordinate spirits, to whom were assigned peculiar employments. The chief of these were the fairies, concerning whom the reader will find a long dissertation, Vol. II. p. 174. The *bröwnie* formed a class of beings, distinct in habit and disposition from the freakish and mischievous elves. He was meagre, shaggy, and wild in his appearance. Thus, Cleland, in his satire against the Highlanders, compares them to

“ Faunes, or *brownies*, if ye will,
Or satyres come from Atlas hill.”

‘ In the day time, he lurked in remote recesses of the old houses which he delighted to haunt; and, in the night, sedulously employed himself in discharging any laborious task which he thought might be acceptable to the family, to whose service he had devoted himself. His name is probably derived from the *Portuni*, whom Gervase of

Tilbury describes thus: "Ecce enim in Anglia dæmones quosdam habent, dæmones, inquam, nescio dixerim, an secretæ et ignotæ generationis effigies, quos Galli Neptunos, Angli Portunos nominant. Istis insitum est quod simplicitatem fortunatorum colonorum amplectuntur, et cum nocturnas propter domesticas operas agunt vigilias, subito clausis januis ad ignem calefiunt, et ranunculas ex sinu projectas, prunis impositas concedunt, [*comedunt*] senili vultu, facie corrugata, statura pusilli, dimidium pollicis non habentes. Panniculis consertis induuntur, et si quid gestandum in domo fuerit, aut onerosi operis agendum, ad operandum se jungunt citius humana facilitate expediunt. Id illis insitum est, ut obsequi possint et obesse non possint." — Otia. Imp. p. 980. In every respect, saving only the feeding upon frogs, which was probably an attribute of the Gallic spirits alone, the above description corresponds with that of the Scottish brownie. But the latter, although, like Milton's lubbar fiend, he loves to stretch himself by the fire, does not drudge from the hope of recompense. On the contrary, so delicate is his attachment, that the offer of reward, but particularly of food, infallibly occasions his disappearance for ever. We learn from Olaus Magnus, that spirits, somewhat similar in their operations to the brownie, were supposed to haunt the Swedish mines. The passage, in the translation of 1658, runs thus: "This is collected in briefe, that in northerne kingdomes there are great armies of devils, that have their services which they perform with the inhabitants of these countries: but they are most frequent in rocks and mines, where they break, cleave, and make them hollow: which also thrust in pitchers and buckets, and carefully fit wheels and screws, whereby they are drawn upwards; and they shew themselves to the labourers, when they list, like phantasms and ghosts." It seems no improbable conjecture, that the brownie is a legitimate descendant of the *lar familiaris* of the ancients.

'A being, totally distinct from those hitherto mentioned, is the bogle, or goblin; a freakish spirit, who delights rather to perplex and frighten mankind, than either to serve, or seriously to hurt, them. This is the *Esprit Follet* of the French; and *Puck* or *Robin Good-fellow*, though enlisted by Shakespeare among the fairy band of Oberon, properly belongs to this class of phantoms. Shellycoat, a spirit, who resides in the waters, and has given his name to many a rock and stone upon the Scottish coast, belongs also to the class of bogles. When he appeared, he seemed to be decked with marine productions, and, in particular, with shells, whose clattering announced his approach. From this circumstance he derived his name. He may, perhaps, be identified with the goblin of the northern English, which, in the towns and cities, Durham and Newcastle for example, had the name of *Barquest*; but, in the country villages, was more frequently termed *Brug*. He usually ended his mischievous frolics with a horse-laugh.

'*Shellycoat* must not be confounded with *Kelpy*, a water spirit also, but of much more powerful and malignant nature. His attributes have been the subject of a poem in Lowland Scottish, by the learned Dr. Jamieson of Edinburgh, which will adorn the third volume of this collection. Of *Kelpy*, therefore, it is unnecessary to say any thing at present.

'Of all these classes of spirits it may be, in general, observed, that their attachment was supposed to be local, and not personal. They haunted the rock, the stream, the ruined castle, without regard to the persons or families to whom the property belonged. Hence, they differed entirely from that species of spirits, to whom, in the Highlands, is ascribed the guardianship, or superintendence of a particular clan, or family of distinction; and who, perhaps, yet more than the brownie, resemble the classic household gods.—Thus, in a MS. history of Moray, we are informed, that the family of Gurlinbeg is haunted by a spirit called *Garlin Bodachar*; that of the baron of Kinchardin, by *Lamhdearg* or Red-hand, a spectre, one of whose hands is as red as blood; that of Tullochgorm, by *May Moulach*, a female figure, whose left hand and arm were covered with hair, who is also mentioned in Aubrey's *Miscellanies*, pp. 211, 212, as a familiar attendant upon the clan Grant. These superstitions were so ingrafted in the popular creed, that the clerical synods and presbyteries were wont to take cognizance of them.' Vol. i. p. xcix.

A still more extended and interesting disquisition on the Lowland superstitions occurs in the second volume, as an introduction to the tale of Tamlane. It would be withholding from our poets the diet of fancy—from our antiquaries, the feast of research—from our philosophers, the crumbs of credulity—not to extract a considerable portion.

'In a work, avowedly dedicated to the preservation of the poetry and tradition of the "olden time," it would be unpardonable to omit this opportunity of making some observations upon so interesting an article of the popular creed, as that concerning the elves, or fairies. The general idea of spirits, of a limited power, and subordinate nature, dwelling among the woods and mountains, is, perhaps, common to all nations. But the intermixture of tribes, of languages, and religion, which has occurred in Europe, renders it difficult to trace the origin of the names which have been bestowed upon such spirits, and the primary ideas which were entertained concerning their manners and habits.

'The word *elf*, which seems to have been the original name of the beings, afterwards denominated *fairies*, is of Gothic origin, and probably signified, simply, a spirit of a lower order. Thus, the Saxons had not only *dun-elfen*, *berg-elfen*, and *munt-elfen*, spirits of the downs, hills, and mountains; but also *feld-elfen*, *wudu-elfen*, *sae-elfen*, and *wæter-elfen*; spirits, of the fields, of the woods, of the sea, and of the waters. In low German, the same latitude of expression occurs; for night hags are termed *aluinnen*, and *aluen*, which is sometimes Latinized *elua*. But the prototype of the English elf is to be sought chiefly in the *berg-elfen*, or *duergar* of the Scandinavians. From the most early of the Icelandic Sagas, as well as from the Edda itself, we learn the belief of the northern nations in a race of dwarfish spirits, inhabiting the rocky mountains, and approaching, in some respects, to the human nature. Their attributes, amongst which we recognise the features of the modern fairy, were, supernatural wisdom and prescience, and skill in the mechanical arts, especially in the fabrication

of arms. They are farther described as capricious, vindictive, and easily irritated. The story of the elfin sword, *Tyrfang*, may be the most pleasing illustration of this position. Suafurlami, a Scandinavian monarch, returning from hunting, bewildered himself among the mountains. About sunset, he beheld a large rock, and two dwarfs, sitting before the mouth of a cavern. The king drew his sword, and intercepted their retreat, by springing betwixt them and their recess, and imposed upon them the following condition of safety; that they should make for him a faulchion, with a baldric and scabbard of pure gold, and a blade, which should divide stones and iron as a garment, and which should render the wielder ever victorious in battle. The elves complied with the requisition, and Suafurlami pursued his way home. Returning at the time appointed, the dwarfs delivered to him the famous sword *Tyrfang*; then, standing in the entrance of their cavern, spoke thus: "This sword, O king, shall destroy a man every time it is brandished; but it shall perform three atrocious deeds, and it shall be thy bane." The king rushed forward with the charmed sword, and buried both its edges in the rock; but the dwarfs escaped into their recesses. This enchanted sword emitted rays like the sun, dazzling all against whom it was brandished; it divided steel like water, and was never unsheathed without slaying a man. *Hervara Saga*, p. 9. Similar to this was the enchanted sword, *Skoffnung*, which was taken by a pirate out of the tomb of a Norwegian monarch. Many such tales are narrated in the Sagas; but the most distinct account of the *duergar*, or elves, and their attributes, is to be found in a preface of Toræus to the history of Hrolf Kraka, who cites a dissertation by Einar Gudmund, a learned native of Iceland. "I am firmly of opinion," says the Icelander, "that these beings are creatures of God, consisting, like human beings, of a body and rational soul; that they are of different sexes, and capable of producing children, and subject to all human affections, as sleeping and waking, laughing and crying, poverty and wealth; and that they possess cattle, and other effects and are obnoxious to death, like other mortals." He proceeds to state, that the females of this race are capable of procreating with mankind; and gives an account of one, who bore a child to an inhabitant of Iceland, for whom she claimed the privilege of baptism, depositing the infant for that purpose at the gate of the church-yard, together with a goblet of gold, as an offering.—*Historia Hrolfi Kraka, a Torfæd.*

Similar to the traditions of the Icelanders, are those current among the Laplanders of Finland, concerning a subterranean people, gifted with supernatural qualities, and inhabiting the recesses of the earth. Resembling men in their general appearance, the manner of their existence and their habits of life, they far excel the miserable Laplanders in perfection of nature, felicity of situation, and skill in mechanical arts. From all these advantages, however, after the partial conversion of the Laplanders, the subterranean people have derived no farther credit, than to be confounded with the devils and magicians of the dark ages of Christianity; a degradation, which, as will shortly be demonstrated, has been also suffered by the harmless fairies of Albion, and indeed by the whole host of deities, of learned Greece, and mighty Rome. The ancient opinions are yet so firmly rooted, that the Laps

of Finland, at this day, boast of an intercourse with these beings, in banquets, dances, and magical ceremonies, and even in the more intimate commerce of gallantry. They talk, with triumph, of the feasts which they have shared in the elfin caverns, where wine and tobacco, the productions of the fairy region, went round in abundance, and whence the mortal guest, after receiving the kindest treatment, and the most salutary counsel, has been conducted to his tent by an escort of his supernatural entertainers—*Jessens, de Lapponibus*.

‘ The superstitions of the islands of Feroe, concerning their *Frodenskemen*, or under-ground people, are derived from the *duerga* of Scandinavia. These beings are supposed to inhabit the interior recesses of mountains, which they enter, by invisible passages. Like the fairies, they are supposed to steal human beings. “It happened,” says Debes, p. 354, “a good while since, when the burghers of Bergen had the commerce of Feroe, that there was a man in Servaade, called Jonas Soideman, who was kept by spirits in a mountain, during the space of seven years, and at length came out; but lived afterwards in great distress and fear, lest they should again take him away; wherefore people were obliged to watch him in the night.” The same author mentions another young man, who had been carried away, and, after his return, was removed a second time upon the eve of his marriage. He returned in a short time, and narrated, that the spirit, that had carried him away, was in the shape of a most beautiful woman, who pressed him to forsake his bride, and remain with her; urging her own superior beauty and splendid appearance. He added, that he saw the men, who were employed to search for him, and heard them call; but that they could not see him, nor could he answer them, till, upon his determined refusal to listen to the spirit’s persuasions, the spell ceased to operate. The kidney shaped West Indian bean, which is sometimes driven upon the shore of the Feroes, is termed, by the natives, “the *fairie’s kidney*.”

‘ In these traditions of the Gothic and Finnish tribes, we may recognize with certainty the rudiments of elfin superstition, but we must look to various other causes for the modifications which it has undergone. These are to be sought—1st, in the traditions of the east—2d, in the wreck and confusion of the Gothic mythology—3d, in the tales of chivalry—4th, in the fables of classical antiquity—5th, in the influence of the Christian religion—6th, and finally, in the creative imagination of the sixteenth century. It may be proper to notice the effect of these various causes, before stating the popular belief of our own time, regarding the fairies.’ Vol. ii. p. 174.

Under each of these six heads of dissertation, a number of curious out-of-the-way relations are compiled from the forgotten repositories of fabulous marvels. Many of them will serve for the story of future ballads, and the decoration of yet unwritten metrical romances. They constitute the elements of British mythology; and, in the hands of a modern Ovid, may be shapen into a wild catalogue of metamorphoses, into amusing anecdotes of sorcery, fableries of romance, or tales of wonder—into a thousand and one nights of entertainment, or golden legends of shuddering astonishment. Nations must have

their mythologists: when the priest grows rational, the poet takes up the task of delusion.

The piece entitled 'the twa Corbies' surpasses the corresponding ballad in Percy. We refer the reader to it. As a specimen of the poetry, we shall select, from the third volume,

' THE GRAY BROTHER.

' The pope he was saying the high, high mass,
All on saint Peter's day,
With the power to him given, by the saints in heaven,
To wash men's sins away.

' The pope he was saying the blessed mass,
And the people kneel'd around,
And from each man's soul his sins did pass,
As he kiss'd the holy ground.

' And all, among the crowded throng,
Was still, both limb and tongue,
While thro' vaulted roof, and aisles aloof,
The holy accents rung.

' At the holiest word, he quiver'd for fear,
And falter'd in the sound,
And, when he would the chalice rear,
He dropp'd it on the ground.

" The breath of one, of evil deed,
Pollutes our sacred day;
He has no portion in our creed,
No part in what I say.

" A being, whom no blessed word
To ghostly peace can bring;
A wretch, at whose approach abhorr'd,
Recoils each holy thing.

" Up! up! unhappy! haste, arise!
My adjuration fear!
I charge thee not to stop my voice,
Nor longer tarry here!"

' Amid them all a pilgrim kneel'd,
In gown of sackcloth gray;
Far journeying from his native field,
He first saw Rome that day.

' For forty days and nights, so drear,
I ween, he had not spoke,
And, save with bread and water clear,
His fast he ne'er had broke.

' Amid the penitential flock,
Seem'd none more bent to pray;
But, when the holy father spoke,
He rose, and went his way.

- ‘ Again unto his native land,
His weary course he drew,
To Lothian’s fair and fertile strand,
And Pentland’s mountains blue.
- ‘ His unblest feet his native seat,
Mid Eske’s fair woods, regain;
Thro’ woods more fair no stream more sweet
Rolls to the eastern main.
- ‘ And lords to meet the pilgrim came,
And vassals bent the knee;
For all mid Scotland’s chiefs of fame,
Was none more famed than he.
- ‘ And boldly for his country, still,
In battle he had stood,
Aye, even when, on the banks of Till,
Her noblest pour’d their blood.
- ‘ Sweet are the paths, O passing sweet!
By Eske’s fair streams that run,
O’er airy steep, thro’ copsewood deep,
Impervious to the sun.
- ‘ There the rapt poet’s step may rove,
And yield the muse the day;
There Beauty, led by timid Love,
May shun the tell-tale ray.
- ‘ From that fair dome, where suit is paid,
By blast of bugle free,
To Auchendinny’s hazel glade,
And haunted Woodhouselee.
- ‘ Who knows not Melville’s beechy grove,
And Roslin’s rocky glen,
Dalkeith, which all the virtues love,
And classic Hawthornden?
- ‘ Yet never a path, from day to day,
The pilgrim’s footsteps range,
Save but the solitary way,
To Burndale’s ruin’d Grange.
- ‘ A woeful place was that, I ween,
As sorrow could desire;
For, nodding to the fall was each crumbling wall,
And the roof was scathed with fire.
- ‘ It fell upon a summer’s eve,
While, on Carnethy’s head,
The last faint gleams of the sun’s low beams
Had streak’d the gray with red;

- ‘ And the convent bell did vespers tell,
Newbottle’s oaks among,
And mingled with the solemn knell
Our ladye’s evening song :
- ‘ The heavy knell, the choir’s faint swell,
Came slowly down the wind,
And on the pilgrim’s ear they fell,
As his wonted path he did find.
- ‘ Deep sunk in thought, I ween, he was,
Nor ever rais’d his eye,
Untill he came to that dreary place,
Which did all in ruins lie.
- ‘ He gazed on the walls, so scathed with fire,
With many a bitter groan—
And there was aware of a gray friar.
Resting him on a stone.
- “ Now, Christ thee save!” said the Gray Brother;
“ Some pilgrim thou seemest to be.”
But in sore amaze did lord Albert gaze,
Nor answer again made he.
- “ O come ye from east, or come ye from west,
Or bring reliques from over the sea,
Or come ye from the shrine of St. James the divine,
Or St. John of Beverly ?”
- “ I come not from the shrine of St. James the divine,
Nor bring reliques from over the sea;
I bring but a curse from our father, the pope,
Which for ever will cling to me.”
- “ Now, woeful pilgrim, say not so!
But kneel thee down by me,
And shrive thee so clean of thy deadly sin,
That absolved thou mayst be.”
- “ And who art thou, thou Gray Brother,
That I should shrive to thee,
When he, to whom are giv’n the keys of earth and heav’n,
Has no power to pardon me?”
- “ O I am sent from a distant clime,
Five thousand miles away,
And all to absolve a foul, foul crime,
Done *here* ’twixt night and day.”
- ‘ The pilgrim kneel’d him on the sand,
And thus began his saye—
When on his neck an ice cold hand
Did that Gray Brother laye.’ Vol. iii. p. 406.

One of the luxuries of civilised society is to associate some marvellous and impressive adventure with every building eminent for its consequence or antiquity, with every spot distinguished by nature for the beauty or horror of its situation. These collections of popular poetry supply, in a high degree, this desirable gratification. The traveler, or the guest, visits with additional feeling the site of romantic events, or the walls conscious of uncommon deeds. The poet should endeavour to make his story and his personages correspond with the spirit of the place. His embellished traditions should never attempt to domesticate in a paradise of beauty the perpetrators of mischief; or to depict the scenery of love and revel, where man has piled castles over dungeons, or nature upheaved precipices over cataracts. The painter is justly blamed, whose figures do not correspond with his landscape, who assembles banditti in an Elysium, or bathing Loves in a lake of storm. The same adaptation of parts is expedient in the poet. For unity of impression, it is requisite in all the arts that the impression be strong and permanent. In the poem we have just quoted, there is an offensive violation of this principle. The whole 409th page, particularly the four stanzas—

‘ Sweet are the paths, O passing sweet !’

to

‘ And classic Hawthornden ?’

disagreeably contrast with the mysterious gloomy character of the ballad. Were these omitted, it would merit high rank for the terrific expectation it excites by the majestic introduction and the awful close.

ART. III. — *Chalmers's Edition of the British Essayists.*
(Continued from p. 18 of the present Volume.)

THE Rambler's portion of fame was to be obtained at a subsequent period: at its first publication, it repelled general readers by its didactic gravity; nor was its majestic energy suitable to the tea-table of the ladies, the easy chair of the lounge, or the table of the casual visitant of the coffee-house. Dr. Johnson laid down the pen, avowing, with dignity, the want of attraction, and the slight calls which he felt for grateful acknowledgement. The Adventurer, it is said, was projected by Hawkesworth, in conjunction with Johnson; and it was resolved that it should ‘ consist of pieces of imagination, pictures of life, and disquisitions of literature.’ For the latter department, they rested on Dr. Warton. Who might have been the intended coadjutors in the other parts, has not been explained. Hawkesworth, Johnson, and Bathurst, are the only authors known. In style, Johnson remained unchanged; and Dr. Hawkesworth fol-

lowed the sententious dignity of his language with a lighter polish, and a more pleasing modulation of his sentences. Bathurst, to whom the department of humour was consigned, did not study the decorations of language, and was seldom choice in his expressions. The days of publication were Tuesdays and Saturdays: the first number appeared in November 1752, the last in March 1754

Of Dr. Hawkesworth little is known. He is said by some to have been a watch-maker; by others to have been, in his youth, an hired clerk to an attorney. Both accounts may be true. In 1744, he succeeded Dr. Johnson in the office of compiler of the parliamentary debates in the Gentleman's Magazine; and, from 1746 to 1749, wrote in that collection different poetical pieces. These are mentioned on the authority of Mr. Duncombe, who seems not to have been aware that Hawkesworth was for many years the editor of that publication*. He used to call it his monster; for it devoured every moment that he could spare, and every morsel that he could collect.

The Adventurer was to Hawkesworth a source of profit and fame. The pure principles of morality and religion, inculcated in these papers, added to the credit of the seminary he was supposed to superintend, kept by his wife, and his merit, as an essayist, induced archbishop Herring to confer on him the title of LL.D.

Lambeth degrees, however useful, are not esteemed proofs of the highest merit; yet our author was so elated by this honour, as to imagine that it opened a way for the profession of a civilian, and having prepared himself by study, made an effort to be admitted a pleader in the ecclesiastical courts, but met with such opposition as obliged him to desist. After this disappointment, however, he had the wisdom to apply himself to the concerns of his school, which was much encouraged, and became a source of considerable emolument. It is now painful to record that this *degree*, and the consequence he began to acquire in the world, alienated him from some of the most valuable of his early friends. Although he had until this time, lived in habits of intimacy with Dr. Johnson, he appears to have withdrawn from him, and it is singular, that in all Mr. Boswell's narrative, there is not one instance of a meeting between Johnson and Hawkesworth. This seems in some degree to confirm sir John Hawkins' account, which states that "his recess wrought no good effects upon his mind and conduct:" Dr. Johnson made the same remark, and with a keen resentment of his behaviour, and sir John thinks, "he might use the same language to Hawkesworth himself, and also reproach him with the acceptance of an academical honour to which he could have no pretensions, and which Johnson, conceiving to be irregular, as many yet do, held in great contempt; thus much is certain, that soon after the attainment of it, the intimacy between them ceased." Dr. John-

* This must have been subsequent to the year 1765; since, about that time, he disclaimed a connexion of this intimate nature. Yet, even in his denial, there is a little equivocation: it certainly never was '*solely under his direction*.'

son, indeed, was scrupulously delicate on this point. He had a high veneration for an academical degree, and he had earned his own long before he appended its title to his name. He loved praise and even flattery; but would accept neither from those who had not a right to bestow it, or did not know how to bestow it gracefully.' Vol. xxiii. P. xiv.

It is, indeed, probable that Hawkesworth was elated with the distinction, and with his success in other respects; but Mr. Chalmers should recollect that Johnson's was an honorary degree, as well as Hawkesworth's; and that one was no more 'earned' than the other. He might have reflected, also, that an honorary degree, of this inferior kind, is seldom appended to the name of those who have a title to similar or greater distinctions, *fairly* earned.

We need not enlarge on his various works: they have, in general, commanded the applause and approbation of critics. Yet there is one in which his character is so strongly implicated, that we must be indulged in some slight observations: we allude to his preface to the Collection of Voyages, which bears his name. After having again attentively read this production, though we think the observations highly reprehensible, and even blasphemous, we are by no means certain that they appeared so in his eyes. In fact, he saw indistinctly some parts of a chain of reasoning, which, in the whole, he could not comprehend, and whose separate links he could not combine. He committed himself in a question which he was not called to defend, and suggested to his enemies a source of clamour from which he could not escape. The question of partial evil for general good is a very abstruse one; and he labours about a meaning in another part, when he speaks of the murder of the original inhabitants in the attempts at discovery. A mind truly religious would have indicated the kind and benevolent interposition of Providence, on the deliverance from danger, without impiously asking why it did not interfere sooner; and, in the second instance, might have pointed out that the murders were by no means the inevitable consequences of discovery, that they were accidents always to be lamented, and, if possible, as has often since been the case, to be avoided. It has been frequently hinted that these, and some other opinions, were by no means his own, but suggested by an authority which he was unable, or unwilling, to resist. A similar apology has been made for numerous indelicate descriptions: but such excuses are by no means valid: nor should he have bartered his well-earned character of piety and decorum for the advantage of any gain. If, as has been said, he died of the chagrin occasioned by the reprehensions he received, we may truly lament the unfortunate termination of a well-spent life, forfeited by a weakness of mind, or an erroneous judgement. A gross disingenu-

ity is obvious in another part: 'Great care has been taken,' he remarks, 'to make the charts and the nautical part of the narrative coincide:' yet, when reprehended by Mr. Dalrymple for inaccuracy in this respect, his language is very different: 'To see that the charts were faithful was not my province: several of them *I never saw, nor indeed could see*, till the book was nearly printed off, because they were not sooner finished.'—'*Great care*,' therefore, could not 'have been taken;' and the assertion was a deliberate falsehood. But, it may be asked, could not Dr. Hawkesworth have seen the drawing, or a proof? Was the engraver so distant that he could not have followed the chart in its progress? He confessedly did not; and yet he asserted that he had taken care. In fact, no recommendation could have been more injudicious—no one could have been less qualified for the work—an enormous sum was never more uselessly bestowed.

In the *Adventurer*, the papers of Hawkesworth are excellent: in light details, he is singularly happy; in his eastern tales, peculiarly interesting, and impressively instructive. Johnson signed his papers with a T; but some confusion has been occasioned in consequence of this letter, in later editions, having been incorrectly affixed. Bathurst died on the expedition to the Havannah, which he attended in a medical capacity; and the little difficulty that arises from the supposition of Johnson having dictated papers to Bathurst, who received the usual price for them, is solved by supposing Hawkesworth acquainted with this stroke of friendship, and distinguishing the papers by Johnson's private mark. The anonymous biographer of Bonnel Thornton claims the papers marked A, usually attributed to Bathurst, as the productions of that gentleman; with what probability, does not now appear; but with such evidence, as has since convinced Mr. Chalmers that he was really the author. It remains, then, to be inquired, what were the communications of Bathurst? On this point we cannot decide. There are few unappropriated papers, and those of no particular cast: it seems, therefore, probable that the cruder efforts of this careless author were corrected by Johnson, and distinguished by Hawkesworth as *his*.

Johnson wrote twenty-nine, and Warton twenty-four, papers. The concluding part of Warton's life merits our warm commendation, as elegant, correct, and discriminative.

His personal character was allowed by all who knew him to rank high: he was cheerful in company, and even convivial; his conversation replete with information on the history of literature, and with classical knowledge. As a teacher he was ever highly venerated by his scholars, many of whom rose to eminent distinction both in the church and state. He died at Wickham, in Hampshire, Feb. 23, 1800.

His contributions to the *Adventurer* amount to twenty-four papers. Of these a few are of the humorous cast, but the greater part

consist of elegant criticism, not that of cold sagacity, but warm from the heart, and powerfully addressed to the finer feelings as well as to the judgment. His critical papers on Lear have never been exceeded for just taste and discrimination. His disposition lay in selecting and illustrating those beauties of ancient and modern poetry, which, like the beauties of nature, strike and please many who are yet incapable of describing or analysing them. No. 101, on the olemishes in the *Paradise Lost*, is an example of the delicacy and impartiality with which writings of established fame ought to be examined. His observations on the *Odyssey*, in Nos. 75, 80, and 83, are original and judicious, but it may be doubted whether they have detached many scholars from the accustomed preference given to the *Iliad*. If any objection may be made to Dr. Warton's critical papers, it is that his Greek occurs too frequently in a work intended for domestic instruction. His style is always pure and perspicuous, but sometimes it may be discovered, without any other information, that "he kept company with Dr. Johnson." The beginning of No. 139, if found detached, might have been attributed to Dr. Johnson. It has all his manner, not merely the "contortions of the Sibyl," but somewhat of the "inspiration." Vol. xxiii. p. xxxviii.

Mr. Colman, and the reverend Richard Jago, were slight contributors: but the charming story of *Fidelia* we owe to Mrs. Chapone, of whom a few memorials are retained, written with great neatness and propriety.

We have thus gradually descended from the dignity of criticism, from the serious precepts of morality and religion, to the period when entertainment was more freely mixed with precept, and when to amuse was more professedly the writer's object, than to reform the wicked, or correct the licentious. In the *World*, we sink one step lower, and now follow a paper where amusement was the chief object, and where instruction was insinuated with a sneer, lightly enforced with a sarcasm, or errors more playfully ridiculed by ironical commendation. Irony, however, as is properly observed in the preface, is a dangerous weapon. When most ably wielded, it is mistaken for indulgence or defence; and, when the broad grin appears through the mask of gravity, it is sometimes doubtful whether the literal, rather than the ironical, meaning may not be preferred, and the eyes shut to what they cannot clearly distinguish, or may be unwilling to see. In this line, however, the *World* was ably supported; and the list of its authors, more within the sphere of modern recollection, shows that, whatever may have been its success, the ability engaged in its conduct could not have been more various, or more considerable. It is, nevertheless, a fact, that, as a whole, it is not peculiarly interesting. *Circum præcordia ludit*: but the mind feels the want of more energetic exertion: passing images, which leave little impression, soon tire; and the perpetual grin quickly induces listlessness. The want of variety is properly urged by Mr. Chalmers; and we should

often wish to change the slight summer silk for something more warm, a garment more substantial.

The editor of this work was Mr. Edward Moore, well known by various separate publications of the lighter kind: but the proprietor was Mr. Dodsley, who paid three guineas for every paper: so that the price gradually advanced; for two was before the stipulated sum, and, in truth, easily earned. Mr. Moore was bred to trade: but, having failed of success, engaged in literary pursuits. His 'Fables for the Female Sex,' his comedy of 'The Foundling,' and his domestic tragedy of 'The Gamester,' contribute to prevent his fame from sinking into the oblivious gulf. They are, indeed, works of talent, but display no very strong mind, or brilliant genius.

In return for the oblique compliments in 'the Trial of Selim,' lord Lyttelton introduced Mr. Moore to Dodsley, and procured the aid of his very numerous and able assistants. The first paper was published in January 24th, 1753, soon after the first appearance of the *Adventurer*: but, being published only once a week, outlived it nearly two years. The rank and character of the writers rendered it popular; and 2500, the number of each paper printed, were generally sold.

Notwithstanding the able assistance of his right honourable friends, Mr. Moore wrote sixty-one of these papers, and the second letter in No. 130. In his first paper, he declines prefixing mottos, principally "because the follies he intends to treat of, and the characters he means to exhibit, are such as the Greeks and Romans were entirely unacquainted with." But this excuse would have been as applicable to the *Spectator* as to the *World*: it is probable he had not much intimacy with classical learning, and it is certain that the mottos which were sent were never rejected. His style is easy and unaffected, and always appropriate to his subjects, which have great variety. If he had not more knowledge of the world than some of his predecessors, he could at least employ it very agreeably. He had professed that the paper should contain novelty of ridicule, and it must be allowed that he seldom betrays the servile copyist, when treating of those subjects which had been handled by others. The few narratives he gives are pleasing and instructive, particularly the description of domestic happiness in No. 16, which in the original edition he had nearly spoiled by the introduction of so improbable a circumstance as a chariot. In Nos. 31 and 186, the almost ludicrous distresses of a credulous clergyman, which remind us, in some degree, of parson Adams, are related with characteristic simplicity. The circumstance of the post-chaise might have been suggested by a similar story in "Greville's Maxims and Reflections," published about this time.

Moore excelled principally in assuming the serious manner for the purposes of ridicule, or of raising idle curiosity, as in No. 144; and in concealed irony, as in Nos. 139 and 145: the plot of the latter, if it may be so termed, is very artfully managed. However trite his subject, he enlivens it by original turns of thought. Some of the

papers are mere exercises of humour, which have no direct moral in view, and for this he in one place offers an apology, or at least acknowledges that he aimed at no higher purpose than entertainment.

' In the last paper, the conclusion of the work is made to depend on a fictitious accident which had happened to the author, and occasioned his death. When the papers were collected in volumes, Mr. Moore superintended the publication, and actually died while this last paper was in the press; a circumstance somewhat singular, when we look at the contents of it, and which induces us to wish that death may be less frequently included among the topics of wit.' Vol. xxvi. p. xviii.

Lord Chesterfield, of whose life and talents no particular account is here necessary, wrote twenty-three papers. One or two of these, relating to Johnson's Dictionary, leads Mr. Chalmers to some account of the celebrated quarrel. As it is here put in a somewhat different view, we shall transcribe the passage.

' These papers' (Nos. 100 and 101) 'were supposed to have been written to conciliate Dr. Johnson, then about to publish his dictionary, whom lord Chesterfield was conscious he had offended. The nature of this offence was for many years reported in various ways, but from Mr. Boswell's account it appears there was no particular incident which produced a quarrel, and that his lordship's continued neglect provoked Dr. Johnson to decline his patronage; and when his lordship now endeavoured to befriend his *magnum opus*, he wrote that celebrated letter, which, whatever may be thought of the provocation, must ever be considered as a model of dignified resentment. What effect it produced on lord Chesterfield is doubtful. He certainly felt that it was necessary to offer some defence to his private friends: and it may be supposed, that he who was a friend to authors of much inferior merit, must have regretted that he had, by whatever appearance of neglect, dissolved a connexion that might have been mutually honourable. Whether the "respectable Hottentot," in his letters to his son, be meant for Dr. Johnson, is not quite so certain as it was once supposed. Sir David Dalrymple, lord Hailes, a contemporary in the world, maintained, that it was intended for the portrait of a late noble lord, distinguished for abstruse science. There are, however, traits in it applicable to Dr. Johnson, but not that of unmannerly eating, unless his lordship took it upon report, for Dr. Johnson declared to Mr. Boswell that "lord Chesterfield never saw him eat in his life." The late earl of Orford, in his account of lord Chesterfield, adverts to this affair in language not very consistent with liberality or truth, and he is not happy in what he perhaps thought a principal excellence, his comparison of the bear and the dancing-master. Johnson would have submitted to the bear, if lord Chesterfield had been content with no higher merit than that of a dancing-master.' Vol. xxvi. p. xxiii.

Mr. Richard Owen Cambridge is an author less known. His mind is represented as fertile, well-informed, and elegant; his humour easy and playful; his raillery good-natured. Mr.

Cambridge's assistance was voluntary, and procured by lord Lyttelton: he contributed twenty-one papers.

Horace Walpole's share was nine papers, 'which excel in keen satire and shrewd remark.' The character of *Bon cœur* was drawn from nature, and designed for Norborne Berkeley. The story of the highwayman happened, almost literally, to Mrs. Cavendish. Five papers are attributed to Soame Jenings, to whose life, as the events are so recent, and to whose publications, already the subject of our notice, we need not recur. Mr. Chalmers, in mentioning the particular numbers, however, enumerates six. Mr. Tilson communicated five numbers. Of Mr. Tilson little is known, but that he was consul at Cadiz, and died in 1760. Mr. Loveybond, who contributed five papers also, chiefly of the serious kind, is known, almost exclusively, as a poet: for two numbers we are indebted to Mr. Whitehead, the poet laureat; and these were his only attempts in prose. Mr. Berenger—sir James Marriott—the earl of Corke and Orrery—his son, Mr. Hamilton Boyle—the celebrated Mr. Pulteney, afterwards earl of Bath—lord Hailes—the Duncombes—Mr. Parratt—and the reverend Mr. Cole—were also contributors. Of the last most amiable and excellent man, we regret that the public knows no more, or that no more is to be known: from the very correct and discriminative account of lord Hailes, we shall transcribe a large portion.

' This amiable and learned man was born at Edinburgh, October 28, N. S. 1726, of an illustrious family; and received his early education at Eton School, from whence he went to the university of Utrecht, where he remained until after the rebellion in 1746. He was called to the bar at Edinburgh, Feb. 23, 1748, was appointed one of the judges of the court of session, March 6, 1766, and in May 1766, one of the lords commissioners of justiciary, by the title of lord Hailes, the name by which he is generally known among the learned in Europe. He was not only conspicuous as an able and upright judge, and a sound lawyer, but was also eminent as a profound and accurate scholar: he was minutely versed in classical learning, the belles lettres, and, what is seldom joined with these, in historical antiquities, particularly in those relating to his own country, to the study of which he was led by his profession. Indefatigable in the prosecution of these branches, his time was devoted to the promotion of useful learning, piety, and virtue. In all his works, which are very numerous, he discovers uncommon accuracy, taste and research. His most celebrated work is "The Annals of Scotland." He was also one of those who repelled Gibbon's attack on Christianity, by "An Inquiry into the secondary Causes which Mr. Gibbon has assigned for the rapid Progress of Christianity, 4to. 1786." To the *Gentleman's Magazine*, the *Biographia Britannica*, and to every literary publication of eminence, he was an useful contributor, and assisted most of the eminent scholars and historians of the time in their researches. His knowledge of literary history was very extensive, and was imparted with a frankness

which enhanced the value of the favour. He was for some years the correspondent of Dr. Johnson, to whose inspection he submitted much of his "Annals" in manuscript. He had early formed a high opinion of the author of the Rambler, and considered him as one of the best moral writers England had produced. Johnson praised him as "a man of worth, a scholar, and a wit." His minute accuracy, and acuteness in detecting error, were in unison with Johnson's love of truth. "The exactness of his dates," said he on one occasion, "raises my wonder. He seems to have the closeness of Henault, without his constraint," and this opinion he takes a pleasure in repeating in a subsequent letter to Mr. Boswell; "Be so kind as to return lord Hailes my most respectful thanks for his first volume: his accuracy strikes me with wonder; his narrative is far superior to that of Henault, as I have formerly mentioned." "Lord Hailes's Annals of Scotland have not that pointed form which is the taste of this age; but it is a book which will always sell, it has such a stability of dates, such a certainty of facts, and such a punctuality of citation. I never before read Scotch history with certainty." Vol. xxvi. p. xliii.

Various authors of credit and character communicated single papers: but, even to enumerate them, would detain us too long. This lucubration was concluded in December 1756.

The 'Connoisseur' did not succeed the 'World.' As the latter pressed on the Adventurer, during its progress, so the Connoisseur re-paid the injury, or favour, by opening its career, 'before the World was at an end.' It commenced the 31st of January, 1754, and was the almost exclusive production of two young Oxonians—Colman and Bonnel Thornton. It was a lively paper, with scarcely any mixture of didactic gravity, and not particularly attractive. The lives of the authors are prefixed: but the events are sufficiently known. The St. James's Chronicle was the arena in which the wits of the time tried their powers; and we read, with some satisfaction, the records of these little skirmishes, these pop-guns of the moment, among which the author of this article first attempted to draw his bow.

In the establishment of the St. James's Chronicle, he had likewise Mr. Thornton for a colleague, who was one of the original proprietors: and by their joint industry they drew the productions of many of the wits of the times to this paper, which, as a depository of literary intelligence, literary contests and anecdotes, and articles of wit and humour, soon eclipsed all its rivals. By a minute now before me, in the hand writing of Mr. Thomas, who was for nearly thirty years its editor, it appears that the principal departments were for some time filled by the following persons. The papers entitled "The Genius," by Mr. Colman: "Smith's Letters," by Peregrine Phillips, esq. short essays of wit, by Bonnel Thornton, esq. longer essays of wit, by — Waller, esq. rebuses and letters, signed "Nic Testy" and "Alexander Grumble," — Forrest; letters, signed "Oakly," Mr. Garrick. Among the numerous successors to these wits, may be men-

tioned, George Steevens, esq. the commentator on Shakspeare, and the late great and good Dr. Horne, bishop of Norwich. Men of literature in general found it necessary to contribute their occasional effusions to a paper in which they were sure to be read by those who could realize and understand the various species of ironical remarks, and harmless deception practised on the devotees of fashion, or the credulous in politics, history, or antiquities.' Vol. xxx. p. xvii.

The earl of Cork, the rev. John Duncombe, the author of the 'Task,' whose memoirs we have lately, with mingled feelings, examined, and Mr. Robert Loyd, whose communications were exclusively poetical, we find to have been the assistants of the young authors, in this collection, which is, at least, lively and entertaining, but seldom highly interesting, and which has never gained a large share of even popular applause, for which it is chiefly calculated.

Hercules, however, apparently indignant at beholding his club wielded by striplings, again seised and brandished it, though with diminished energy and vigour. In 1758, a literary essay was supposed an attractive ornament in a new weekly paper—the Universal Chronicle; and Johnson was engaged, by a proportion of the profits, to furnish it. Perhaps finding his former dignity less popular, he assumed a more familiar style; and his letters, under the guise of different characters, were more freely and more naturally written. He was, in fact, the Idler which he drew; and what was done most easily was preferred. His 'Lives of the Poets' were written in a similar way. We seldom see the giant's strength: he wanders through the wood, chasing the butterfly, collecting the flowers to form the destined bouquet, but never attempts the lofty mountain, or combats with the hero of the forest. His Idler is a pleasing paper, but was never highly popular. The taste for this kind of writing was decaying: the appetite had been pampered with every delicacy; and no flavour was sufficiently nice, no spice sufficiently high, to render the *crambe recocta* palatable.

The late poet-laureat Warton wrote three papers in this collection. Sir J. Reynolds was also the author of three; and Bennet Langton of one. We shall transcribe the character of Johnson in the words of Reynolds.

'Speaking of his own discourses, our great artist says, "Whatever merit they have, must be imputed, in a great measure, to the education which I may be said to have had under Dr. Johnson. I do not mean to say, though it certainly would be to the credit of these discourses, if I could say it with truth, that he contributed even a single sentiment to them: but he qualified my mind to think justly. No man had, like him, the faculty of teaching inferior minds the art of thinking. Perhaps other men might have equal knowledge, but few were so communicative. His great pleasure was to talk to those who looked up to him. It was here he exhibited his wonderful powers. In

mixed company, and frequently in company that ought to have looked up to him, many, thinking they had a character for learning to support, considered it as beneath them to enlist in the train of his auditors: and to such persons he certainly did not appear to advantage, being often impetuous and overbearing. The desire of shining in conversation was in him indeed a predominant passion; and if it must be attributed to vanity, let it at the same time be recollected, that it produced that loquaciousness from which his more intimate friends derived considerable advantage. The observations which he made on poetry, on life, and on every thing about us, I applied to our art, with what success others must judge." Vol. xxxiii. p. xxv.

'When we peruse such a character of Dr. Johnson, from the pen of sir Joshua Reynolds, it is natural to ask what must become of the puny attempts of inferior writers to diminish the fame, and insult the memory, of our great moralist?' Vol. xxxiii. p. xxvi.

The splendor of sir Joshua's fame, and of Johnson's talents, seem to have dazzled our author, and blinded his intellectual ray. We will not assert that *this quotation* insults his memory: but it certainly diminishes his fame. What does it say, but that he was boisterous and overbearing, unless indulged with untroubled attention? Was Johnson, then, always wise and discreet, intelligent and judicious? His best friends will allow that he had many prejudices: on more than one subject, his mind was warped: in politics, it was polluted by disloyalty; in religion, by an abject timid superstition. Must such a man be always heard without an observation, without a reply?—The period of belief in infallibility is at an end.

Attention was, however, once more awakened by a periodical publication from Edinburgh. The scene was new—the manners peculiar—the objects different. The Mirror, also, attracted by variety: it was lively and instructive, witty and judicious. Each paper is now appropriated: but few of the authors are familiar to us; and Mr. Chalmers has given no biographical sketches. We shall, therefore, only add, that, the novelty once at an end, the same authors in the 'Lounger' could not obtain equal attention; and this last paper was never popular in this part of Great-Britain.

We have now finished our course, and kept our author so long in view, that we need not add how agreeable his company and conversation have been. Like ghosts, we have delighted to wander in the scenes that for a time interested us; and have left, with a lingering reluctance, the haunts of former happier days. While the recollection of these has soothed some mental pangs, we trust that they have added somewhat to the amusement, something to the instruction of the reader. We may then cheerfully add—*forsan et hæc meminisse jurebit.*

ART. IV.—*The Works of Richard Owen Cambridge, Esq. including several Pieces never before published: with an Account of his Life and Character, by his Son, George Owen Cambridge, M.A. &c.* 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

ONE of the most pleasing and interesting portions of this splendid volume is the preliminary biography. It is composed with the easy perspicuity and unaffected propriety of a well-educated man, able, but not ambitious, to write. It delineates the departed poet with a reverence of admiration, with a politeness of piety, which, in any other than a son, would have seemed extravagant, not graceful. It includes anecdotes and portraits of many distinguished characters of the last generation; and, like a convex mirror, attracts less notice for its own sake, than for that of the surrounding objects which it reflects.

Richard Owen Cambridge was born in London on the 14th of February, 1717. He was sent early to Eton school; and thence, in 1734, to Oxford. In 1737 he took chambers at Lincoln's-inn; and, in 1741, married a miss Trenchard, with whom he resided at Whitminster in Gloucestershire. He was fond of the water, and contrived a double boat, consisting of two distinct boats fifty feet in length, and only eighteen inches wide, placed parallel to each other at the distance of twelve feet, and united by a deck. This double boat is described as a very swift and steady sailer, and capable of wafting heavy weights. In 1744 Mr. Cambridge published the *Scribleriad*, which is the most considerable of his poetical, and in 1761 a *History of the War of Coromandel*, which is the most extensive of his prosaic productions. He died on the 17th of September, 1802. He was unusually temperate in his habits, and excelled in conversation.

The minor poems of this author, which chiefly consist of *vers de société*—occasional verses—are here for the first time collected entirely in chronological order. Some contributions to the *World*, of which we have just spoken, are annexed. The volume is printed to correspond with the large-paper edition of the *War of Coromandel*; and these two quartos include all the works of Mr. Cambridge. None of them have splendid merit: ease, and sometimes humour, form their prominent characteristic. We shall enumerate, in their order, the more trifling.

The *Congratulatory Verses on the Marriage of Frederic, Prince of Wales*, are written in the stanza of Spenser; they display but little fancy. A *Dialogue on Learning* between Dick and Ned, who

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book is found in the collections.

' The excellencies making known,
Of learning, slyly show their own,'

is rhymed with the fluency and superficiality of Churchill.

Archimage is the best poem: it describes, in the blazoning forms of epic poetry, the boat and boat's crew of the author; and is, perhaps, one of the most successful fragments of mock-heroic in the language: a few of the stanzas follow:—

' And now the bold inchaunter caus'd be brought,
Of strange and curious worke, a rich machine;
Which by his skille right cunninglie was wrought,
So that it's paragonne mote not be seene;
(Full powerful is the magick art, I weene)
Ne drawn by dragons was this sumptuous carre,
Ne by dread lions on the level greene,
Ne yet by yoked swans along the air;
As wizards oft, we read, convey the ravish'd fair.

' But with his wond'rous and all-powerful breath,
And the bare motion of his felon hond,
To whate'er parts he lists he travelleth,
And flies with ease to many a distant lond;
For of his prey he now possess'd doth stand.
Als his behests four wizards sage obey,
Each waving in his hand a powerful wand;
Mightie themselves; but mightier he than they;
Ne mote they his commands at any time gainsay.

' In the first rank a wily mage did sit,
Long vers'd in fraud, and exercised in ill;
Ne scrupled e'er t'employ his wicked wit,
His master's dev'lish mandates to fulfille;
And with malicious spite he turned stille
'Gainst elfinne knights, and wrought them mickle woe;
Als wou'd the blood of holy beadsmen spille,
Whose hairy scalps he hanged in a row
Around his cave; sad sight to Christian eyes I trow!

' These would he with a deadlie engine fell
Harrow and claw, his foul heart to aggrate,
And wreak his malice, strange it is to tell,
On object senseless and inanimate;
As though it were his living foeman's pate.
Als wou'd he rub a magic ointment est
O'er heads of luckless knights, such was his hate;
Which of their curled tresses them bereft,
That nought but naked scorne and baldness vile was left.

' Next sate a monstrous and mishapen wight,
His nether parts unseemlie to beholde;
All from his waiste discovering to the sight
A fishe's tail, with many a circling folde,
Which from the sea he mote not long witholde;

Als in his hideous and Cyclopean front
 One single eye-ball (ghastlie feature !) roll'd,
 Which fill'd with horror whoso look't upon't,
 And sea and land alike were this foule wizard's wont.

' But chief frequented he rough Neptune's reign,
 Where with his dread inchauntments cast about,
 He'd call the fishe up from the wat'ry plain,
 Shad, salmon, turbot, sturgeon, sole and trout ;
 Ne 'scap'd the smaller frie, ne larger rout ;
 But all who in his magick circles caught,
 Ne great ne small mote ever thence get out ;
 Such power alas ! have fell inchaunters got,
 Ne aught can them resist, ne can escape them aught.

' Yet not for appetite or hunger keen,
 Or for the end of luscious luxurie,
 Did he thus labour day and night, I ween,
 And those delicious creatures doom to die,
 But barely to aggrate his crueltie.
 For aye such joy in mischief would he take,
 That oft he 'd run and flounce and wade and flie
 Like goose unwieldie or like waddling drake,
 And thus pursue his prey still flound'ring through the lake.

' Ne would he e'er exchange these 'steemed cates
 For life-supporting bread, or wholesome food,
 Ne fill his body ere with strength'ning meats,
 But ev'ry thing eschewing that is good,
 Nought ate or drank which mote not evil brood :
 Hot and rebellious liquors were his meal,
 Which caus'd foul workings in his fev'rish blood ;
 'Bove all things else he wassel priz'd and ale ;
 For Tritonne, when in drinke, begotte him on a whale.

' The next a foul and filthy wizard was ;
 His skin like hydes of leather did appear ;
 A griezlie beard grew matted o'er his face ;
 Hard wax distilled from his eyes so blear,
 And on his back grew stiffe and brieslie hair ;
 Which like th' enraged porcupine he'd dart
 'Gainst skinne of such as him provoked ere ;
 And ever glad to do them shame and smart,
 Left them all slash'd and gored and pink'd in every part.

' From noblest auncestors his birth he'd boast,
 E'en from the mightie Crispin's royal bed ;
 Tho' he in Fortune's ruder waves was tost,
 And by the potent Archimage was led ;
 Nay once by mightier force imprisonned,
 Altho' himself a great enchaunter was ;
 Untill released thro' grace and bountihed
 Of good and gentle knight of Crispin's race,
 From barres of hardest steel, and walles of triple brasse.

* Yet by superior force not overmatch'd,
Well knew he how to deal the secret spell :
Thereto the steps of wand'ring knights he watch'd,
And with smooth words decoy'd them to his cell ;
Where in a chair enchanted, strange to tell,
The knights he placed ; when thrusting all amaine
I' the stocks their tender feet, the traytor fell
Leaves them, regardless of their bitter paine ;
There may they weep and wail, and storm and rave in vaine.

* Next the most dread magician of the crew,
Save the all-powerful Archimage alone,
Of strange and hideous forme, and sable hue,
Fire from his mouthe and livid eye-balls shone,
Would melt harde flints and most obdurate stone.
Thick clouds of smoke still issued from his nose,
Which he in danger hath about him throwne ;
His iron nails the length of fingers rose,
Ne brasse, ne hardest steele, mote his sharpe teeth oppose.

* He was to weet a craftie subtile mage,
Great Vulcan's sonne, and from his sire full well
Had learn'd the winds rude force and nightier rage
Of fire, which oft he 'd fetch with many a spell,
And bold Promethean arts, from lowest hell.
In a vaste cave did this inchaunter wonne,
Full of things foul to see and sadde to tell ;
With many a rotten sculle and bleached bone,
And many a mangled lymb was the dread pavement strowne.

* Als on the portals of his friendless gate
He fixed has, and hanged upon highe
The boastfull tokens of his vengefull hate,
And spoils of his lamented victorie,
Extorting tears from every tender eye ;
When luckless knights by him dismounted are,
He straitway to the helpless steed doth flie ;
Soon from his tender foot the sole doth teare,
And home the mournful trophie of his conquest beare.

* Nor so he lets escape the haplesse steede,
But daie by daie doth racke him more and more ;
Now strikes his tender necke till it doth bleede,
And his sleek skyn becomes all cover'd o'er
With the foule stains of bloode and clotted gore ;
Als with hotte pyncers dothe he seare his tongue,
And with sharpe nails his feet he pricketh sore ;
Which makes him frette, as tho' by gadflie stunge,
Whil'st his gall'd hoofe still smarts, in magick circle wrunge '

P. 36.

Some very moderate imitations of Horace precede the Scribleriad. This poem is undeservedly applauded by the whim-
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sical author of the Pursuits of Literature: he had an obvious interest in applauding it; for it attempts humour with equal gravity, and is crowded with similar learned allusions to the ephemeral controversies of useless pedantry. It is a poem without an object. It is impossible to guess what the hero is about. The machinery is inappropriate. The journey into Africa is described as real; that into Acrostic Land as allegorical; and the initiation into the mysteries of alchymy as satyrical; so that Scriblerus is by turns a man, an emblem, and a caricature. The versification is according to rule, and resembles that of Pope, or rather of his feeble echo, Parnell, in every thing but significancy. It cheats the ear with similar cadences, and the eye with similar phraseology: it is correct, easy, euphonious, but maukish, tautologous, and servile; seldom picturesque, never brilliant.

Of the miscellaneous verses, very few merit even a perusal. A Dialogue between a Member of Parliament and his Servant; another called The Intruder; a fable; a tale; an elegy; an epilogue, &c. &c. occur. At length some epigrams, not one of which is good: the least feeble, is the following translation:—

‘ As ——— was stepping out of bed,
A lurking mouse he spies:
And thus, alarm'd with sudden dread,
Aloud to Tony cries:
Tony make haste—the trap prepare—
I see the rascal dodging.—
Friend, quoth the mouse, you need not fear,
I come but for a lodging;
Nor plant that dreadful engine there,
To catch me by the neck fast;
For surely I had ne'er come here,
If I had wanted breakfast.’ P. 357.

The papers from the World terminate the volume: and we are glad to arrive at the World's end.

ART. V.—*Adolphus's History of England.* (Continued from p. 211 of our present Volume.)

THE seeds of the fatal dispute with America were sown very early; and the crop advanced with the rapidity which distinguishes the increase of the most noxious vegetables. Every baneful weed added to its malignant luxuriance; and the friends of the Americans were found among the opponents of administration, the disappointed whigs, the dissenters, and those who

already aimed at the destruction of all social order. America was conquered in England, partly through the conjoint exertions of the disaffected, but still more through the debility of the existing administration; whence arose that weak ineffectual system, properly characterised by Frederic, as too mild for conquest, and too severe for conciliation. The first scene in this tragedy, whose catastrophe is at this moment approaching, commenced in March 1764, when the resolutions for regulating the trade with America were introduced, accompanied with one for a stamp-duty. The kingdom, smarting under the wounds inflicted in the war for the sake of America, grasped eagerly at the idea of receiving some compensation from the same source; and the question of its propriety or justice is well stated by Mr. Adolphus.

‘ The participation which America claimed and enjoyed in the benefits of the revolution, rendered it merely reasonable that the colonies should contribute towards the discharge of a debt, incurred in support of the government which was to them the source of liberty and prosperity. The last war was undertaken principally on account of America, and a great part of the debt contracted in the preceding war, had originated in the defence of that country. The practice of imposing taxes by authority of parliament on the Transatlantic dominions was not new; it had been used ever since their establishment; not to an extent sufficient to afford great advantage to the country, yet abundantly sufficient, so far as precedent can be required, to support the right of the mother-country to draw pecuniary relief from her dependancies. The principle at the period of passing the resolutions in parliament was not deemed open to an objection; and it was considered necessary, as well as just, to realize the advantages which had been promised from the colonization and protection of that distant continent.’ Vol. i. p. 159.

As our author observes, the nation in general adopted the measure with little consideration. In America, the mind, soured by the Indian war subsequent to the peace of Versailles, and supposed to be the effect of French intrigue, as well as by the vexatious attempts to repress a trade, which, though illicit, was endeared to them by custom and its lucrative returns, felt, with some indignation, the news of fresh imposts. In Massachusetts, were evinced the first symptoms of resistance. The descendants of the puritans, who had fought for liberty, and retired to the wilds of America to preserve it, were soon roused. Our historian contends, that independence was already resolved on, though its partisans were few; and governor Pownall has told us that a federative union had been before a ready resource. Dr. Franklin was sent to England, a man of shrewdness, and, by many, asserted to have been a man of duplicity; but of deep reflexion, unabating perseverance, and a prepossessing simpli-

city of manner, which adapted him for the politic part he was to act. This part was the exhibition of real or apparent candour, and readiness to conciliate. Our author's account is as follows :—

‘ It was also resolved to send Dr. Franklin to England, as agent for America, to exert his talents and influence in defeating the measures complained of. This choice of an agent had a great effect on the subsequent transactions of the colonies. Franklin, bred to the trade of a printer, and at an early period of life obliged to rely on himself alone for subsistence and advancement, was rendered cautious, attentive, and circumspect : though his efforts had been rewarded by a competent fortune, and the postmastership of America, he did not resign himself to indolence, but still pursued the employments of his younger years with unabated perseverance. An affectionate attachment to literature and natural philosophy acting upon a bold and ardent genius, rendered him daring and adventurous ; but left him all that minute attention and patient calmness, which combines trifling accidents, and little causes, in the promotion and perfection of the greatest designs. His eloquence was simple, but nervous and commanding, and both in speaking and writing abounded with those brief apophthegms, which make a forcible impression on the mind, subjugate the judgment, and are never eradicated from the memory. The projects of Franklin, which in another would have seemed exaggerated and preposterous, were by him so well planned and so industriously pursued, that they never failed to produce the most extensive, and, to all but himself, unexpected results. His fortune, his knowledge, and his great work the American revolution, are convincing and incontrovertible proof of the immense labours which may be achieved by the union of genius, judgment, and perseverance.’ Vol. i. p. 169.

In their opposition to the stamp-duty, the colonial agents disputed the principle ; and, in 1765, when the measure was carried through parliament with little difficulty, petitioned against it. Mr. Adolphus examines the objections to the stamp-duty, independently of the principle, with great propriety, and points out a step of considerable importance in the progress of the opposition—the first example of federative union, in the formation of a synod of presbyterian ministers at Philadelphia. This meeting was a centre in which the radii, from the remotest provinces, were to unite ; for correspondences were established on every side. The author proceeds to explain, with great propriety, the opposition to the stamps in Massachusetts, and the first imperfect representation of the colonies in congress at New York.

The change of ministry brought the reputed friends of America into power ; but the weakness and indecision of the Rockingham administration are well known. We shall select a passage founded on private information, but which we know to be as correct as it is interesting.

' In this interval, a meeting was held at the house of the marquis of Rockingham, for the purpose of arranging measures against the opening of the session, and particularly with respect to the late transactions in America. Among the persons present, were the marquis of Rockingham, lord Egmont, general Conway, Mr. Dowdeswell, the earl of Dartmouth, and Mr. Yorke. The most effective and dignified advice was, to declare, by an act of parliament, the legislative power of Great Britain over America, and inflict penalties of high treason on those who should impeach that authority, either by speaking or writing. The supremacy of the parent country being thus ascertained, it was recommended to bring in a bill to explain, alter, and amend the stamp act, in such a manner as would render the operation easy, and its provisions unexceptionable. The principal alterations were, that duties should be paid in currency, instead of sterling money; offences against the act tried in courts of record, instead of the court of vice-admiralty; and the merchants relieved by taking off or greatly reducing the stamps on cocquets and clearances. But this firm and manly advice did not prevail; the opinions previously delivered by some members of administration, were incompatible with such measures; and although Mr. Dowdeswell, chancellor of the exchequer, produced letters from New York, importing that the money collected from the duty on molasses, had been detained in the colony by the threats and orders of the mob, yet no vigorous measure was resolved on. In fact, nothing was decided, except the terms in which the king's speech should be comprized: and the ministry formed no regular or consistent plan of operation and mutual support.' Vol. i. p. 217.

The debate which ensued brought forward lord Chatham as an advocate for America, and Mr. Grenville in defence of the former measures of government. The arguments of the former, against the principle, are cogent, but imprudent. Yet we acquit Mr. Pitt of speaking as a mere party man, and believe him to have been strictly honest in the arguments he advanced. Ministers were determined to repeal the stamp-act, and are said to have favoured petitions from different places as their apology; but they accompanied it with a declaration of the *right* of Great-Britain to tax America. It was impossible to descend with less dignity; and the subtle Franklin encouraged the measure. The declaratory act was, in America, treated with contempt; the repeal, with triumph.

An administration so weak could not long continue; and lord Chatham's, which succeeded, was equally unpopular and unfortunate. It repeated the impolitic measure of taxing America; and the injudicious impost on tea kindled the flame which could not be again quenched. From this period, the contest with America is generally known; and we shall, from this æra, only notice those points in which Mr. Adolphus's narrative is peculiarly able and correct, or where little omissions or errors are observable.

The reflexions of the historian on the facility with which the ministry yielded to the petition of the merchants of London, respecting the American non-importation resolution, are highly judicious; and at the moment, the obnoxious act, if persisted in, might, in his opinion, have terminated the contest within no long period, or the entire repeal of it might have conciliated the colonists. We may add also, that, had active measures been pursued on the convention of the new assembly at Boston, the rebellion would never have extended beyond Massachusetts. It is well known, that all the taxes were repealed, the impost on tea excepted, perhaps to oblige the East-India Company, but rather probably to preserve the right of enacting, while tea was chosen as the luxury that could be with least comfort resigned.

The active and persevering efforts of the Boston patriots are well described; and the first serious attack from parliament, in shutting up the port of Boston, regulating the government of the Massachusetts, &c. ably detailed. This was, however, the period of a fatal omission. Had a powerful force accompanied these bills, and had this force evinced any thing of a discriminating spirit and effect, there were a sufficient number of loyal subjects to have joined in repressing turbulence and rebellion. The discontented were, however, encouraged to persevere, from an assurance that no active force would be sent against them; and none was sent till it was too late.

The proceedings of the popular party in America are described with great propriety and clearness. The gradual progress of their resistance is well pursued; and the circumstances which led from remonstrance to actual force are stated with perspicuity. The following remarks on the proceedings of congress merit the attention of the reader.

' The proceedings of congress and the general tenor of their resolutions, evidently indicated that a plan of hostility and separation from the mother-country was profoundly meditated, and unremittingly pursued by those who possessed the greatest influence, and whose exertions gave a colour to all the proceedings. Most of the resolutions adopted, and the general tenor, as well as many marked expressions, in the association, addresses, and petitions, pointed decidedly to resistance and independence: even the studious and laboured manner in which those views were verbally renounced, while they were really pursued, must contribute to enforce a conviction that the expressions of loyalty and submission were intended only to conceal sentiments diametrically opposite. Fettered as some of the members of congress were by the instructions of their constituents, many of which enjoined them to pursue none but proper, prudent, and lawful measures, they could not openly advance their claims, and were therefore obliged to assume such a mode of conduct as would secure the greatest share of popularity, and diffuse the smallest portion of alarm. Even in the

bosom of the congress that unanimity did not prevail which is indicated in the publication of their proceedings: the measures recommended by some of the demagogues were too violent, and the principles advanced in their support too daring to be adopted by all the members; hence it frequently appears on the journals that strenuous debates were maintained; questions adjourned, and reports committed: the effect of these disagreements was, however, prevented from reaching the public, by an artifice of the leaders of the republican party, who, before any business was proceeded on, persuaded the other members to bind themselves in an agreement that their names should be subscribed to whatever might be decided by a majority, and no protest or dissent appear on the minutes. Two parties were formed at the beginning of the sittings: the one, consisting of men of loyal principles, and possessed of considerable fortunes, who had no intention but that of candidly and clearly defining American rights and charters, and explicitly and dutifully petitioning for redress of grievances; these meaning to do only such things as were reasonable and just, were open and ingenuous. The other party, composed of congregational and presbyterian representatives, men of bankrupt fortunes, and overwhelmed in debt to British merchants, were desirous to throw off all subordination and connection with Great Britain; they endeavoured by every fiction, falsehood, and fraud, to delude the people from their allegiance, to reduce government to a state of anarchy, and incite the ignorant and vulgar to arms, for the purpose of establishing independence: these men were secret and hypocritical, and essayed every art to conceal their intentions. These parties held each other in check for some time; but at length the demagogues triumphed; the lassitude attending a perpetual system of defence, and the unwillingness continually to impute principles which were constantly denied, diminished their alertness, while the temper infused into the populace, the frequent messages from the provincial congress of Massachusetts Bay, and the examples daily exhibited, of tarring and feathering obnoxious persons, gave additional spirit to the violent, and increased the timidity of the moderate party.' Vol. ii. p. 164.

So little were the members of congress satisfied with each other, that the meeting would perhaps have separated without taking any steps for a future session, had not Silas Deane, without any previous communication with either party, introduced the proposition. Indeed, had the proceedings of congress been known, they would have contained a complete answer to lord Chatham's commendation of their measures. So far as they are known, they are master-pieces of dexterity on the democratic side, in urging every point to the utmost extent to which it could be carried with success. This party, however, was completely mortified, that its extreme violence was repressed; and more so that the proceedings of congress were in some states or towns disavowed. The debates in the session of the British parliament of 1774 and 1775 are detailed with singular judgement and précision.

Notwithstanding the declarations of loyalty in the American petitions and addresses, modified however by the word 'constitutional,' an appeal to arms was in the contemplation of a large number; and preparations were accordingly made. Our author thinks, with reason, that independence was, from the beginning, determined on by the democrats; and that they gradually led to this last point, when moderation was no longer a virtue. An appeal to arms soon took place; and our author's reflexions on the first skirmish, occasioned by the attempt to destroy the stores at Concord, merit our notice.

'The advantages derived from the expedition were but trifling, as great part of the stores had been previously removed, while the injury accruing to the cause of government was extensive and permanent. The circumstances of the day afforded the enemy an opportunity of throwing odium on the king's troops, and enabled them to excite the timid to resistance, and confirm the wavering in sentiments of decided and unlimited opposition. Discipline and valour had been baffled by energy and cunning; those who were not engaged in the contest, became inflamed with emulation; longed to share the glory of driving before them the British troops; and talked with confidence of expelling them from Boston. Their zeal was further excited by an untrue report, industriously circulated, that one object of the expedition was the seizure of John Hancock and Samuel Adams; two distinguished members of congress.

'It is well observed by a writer friendly to the Americans, that as force was to decide the contest, it was fortunate for them that the first blood was drawn in New England, where the inhabitants are so connected by descent, manners, religion, politics, and a general equality, that the destruction of an individual interested the whole community, and excited general indignation.' Vol. ii. p. 258.

The imprudent attack on Bunker's-hill, and the very injudicious conduct of it, are detailed with marks of disapprobation, though softened by a kind of apology; and the ultimate decision of congress, in consequence of that event, decided the opinion for war. The siege of Quebec soon followed; and the circumstances are related with seeming accuracy and singular precision.

Yet, either from a dread of the horrors of war, or, in the language of our historian, from that subtilty which led them on with rapid steps in the path of revolt, while Great-Britain constantly appeared in their representations as the aggressor—and from a wish to preserve a seeming loyalty, while independence was their evident design—they made new efforts for conciliation. They addressed their friends in the city of London, the people of Ireland, and the king; in a manner, however, to procure or preserve friends by a display of moderation, and complaints of oppression, rather than really to conciliate. In fact, the period when conciliation must be at an end was already arrived.

England prepared in earnest for war, and entered into subsidiary treaties for the hire of troops. Some were expected from Russia, and it is said, in a certain degree, promised; but the empress afterwards declined engaging her troops as mercenaries, though she hinted at future co-operation. This intelligence is derived from private information. Of the disposition of the other powers, our historian's account is not distinguished by that acuteness of penetration which he seems at times to possess. At this very moment, the intrigues of America had begun in France, and were carried on with little secrecy. We have even reason to believe that the discussion of the subject of independence was accelerated, that France might with more apparent propriety assist in it.

After the battle of Bunker's-hill, Boston was blockaded, and, at last, abandoned. The blockade was disgraceful; the retreat dishonourable; suspiciously precipitate, and highly disadvantageous.

Although it had been resolved to abandon that position, yet the disgrace of being compelled to retreat was unnecessarily incurred. The credit of enterprize, and fame of achievement accruing to the enemy, were of the highest importance to a people yet in the rudiments of the military profession, doubtful of their own strength, rather daring than confident, qualified only for sudden exertion, unimproved by practice, and unrestrained by discipline. But acquisitions more solid than these speculative advantages, arose from the precipitate evacuation of Boston: the barracks were uninjured, the cannon were only in part rendered unfit for immediate service, immense stores were left untouched, and not a dwelling was damaged, except those which had been consumed for fuel. Thus was Boston, the cradle of revolution, and the primary object of parliamentary vengeance, left to the possession of the enemy, rather improved than injured by the residence of a royal army, and thus the Americans received the means as well as the earnest of further success.' Vol. ii. p. 387.

In July 1775, after many difficulties, violent discussions, and persevering contests, the independence of America was established by the democratic party, with the reluctant consent of many, who, in other parts of their conduct, had warmly coalesced in it. To this difficulty of meeting various and discordant opinions, we may attribute the shallow weakness of the declaration. It was necessary to avoid giving offence—for a great part of the continent yet opposed the measure—and we think it was at last precipitated for the reason assigned. After the British troops had removed to a more central situation, the war was carried on with feebleness and indecision. Victories were abandoned, without prosecuting any advantages; and the moment of action was deferred, till even success was rendered useless. Such at least is our author's representation; and we fear it is a just one. There seems to be little doubt that an active attack might

at many periods have determined the war, had not conciliation been too long persisted in, and had not the hands of the commanders, and administration at home, been held by the clamours of party. After the capture of the Hessians at Trenton, in consequence of the unparalleled inattention of general Howe, by a bold manœuvre of Washington, suggested by general Arnold, and the winter campaign in the Jerseys, the American prospects were much clearer; and on this hinge the whole success seemed to turn. The defeat in Canada did not cloud them; for it was amply compensated by the capitulation of Saratoga. The whole of the Canadian expedition is explained with particular ability, assisted by private information; and the misfortune of Burgoyne detailed, with all its previous misfortunes, and all its attending fatality.

In the ensuing parliamentary session, the arguments of opposition derived great force from these events; and the measure of employing the Indians was severely reprobated. Mr. Adolphus, however, defends it, chiefly on this ground, that the Americans would, if possible, have obtained their aid, and relinquished the attempt only because they found it impracticable. In this session, the interference of France was announced; and it then appeared that the cause of America was considered, in general, as hopeless, till the convention of Saratoga occurred, and the conciliatory propositions of lord North were brought forward. These events ultimately decided the court of France to conclude the treaty with America—a treaty sealed in blood, and which when Lewis signed, he signed his own death-warrant. He afterward felt this fatal truth in all its bitterness; and though England, like a generous enemy, may have commiserated the event, she should have been the last to have avenged it. Another illustrious victim of error was the earl of Chatham. The imprudence, formerly alluded to, he amply compensated. He came down to the house to protest against American independence, which his conduct had encouraged and assisted; and, with the animated indignation of a reply, his *spirit* fled. The little remains of animal life continued for a short period; but he may be said to have died at his post.

The war after this languished into petty predatory attempts. No grand object seemed to be pursued, till the expedition to Charleston by sir Henry Clinton. French assistance was of little ultimate service; and d'Estaing, baffled at Rhode Island, and repulsed in Georgia, was considered as a proud inefficient boaster; in his address to the Canadians, as a treacherous ally. The expedition to South Carolina merits more particular notice, as the line of conduct pursued by general Clinton was exactly that which was expected from general Howe. It was not, however, successful; and it remains to be inquired, whether the rea-

sons of the failure, in this expedition, were applicable to the former situation of the English troops?

It is at once obvious, that the circumstances of both parties were different. General Howe, with a considerable well-appointed army, had, in opposition, only bodies of unequal strength, seldom armed, often without necessities or provisions. They could in a moment disband, and again in a moment collect; but, if often repeated, each returning exertion would be less and less. Instead of remaining at New York, had he taken a commanding station in the Jerseys, he would have divided the states, and ultimately conquered. General Clinton, on the contrary, had an army greatly inferior, and was obliged to compensate by activity what he wanted in power. He had opponents well mounted, often well-appointed; men instructed in European tactics; soldiers who had fought and conquered. They rallied on every side, as the less disciplined opponents of Howe had done; but he had not sufficient force to check this repeated collection; and the power thus collected was daily more formidable. He was also at one extremity of the continent, and the whole of its force opposed to him. The same plan, in other circumstances, would have succeeded much more completely. Where the former error lay, cannot yet be ascertained. The original information will probably not appear in our time. Conjecture may supply its place; but conjecture may be wrong, and consequently should be dropt.

The decisive period advanced, when lord Cornwallis, surrounded in Virginia, opposed by a combined army of French and Americans, was ultimately obliged to yield. A little jealousy between him and sir Henry Clinton seems to have prevailed. As sir Henry wished to resign, in which case he was to be succeeded by lord Cornwallis, the latter offered his plans to administration, without the intervention of his superior officer, who, at the moment of execution, might be in Europe. Sir Henry's resignation was not accepted; and consequently he was officially unacquainted with the designs of lord Cornwallis, and perhaps not perfectly satisfied with his so eagerly assuming the province of the commander. As usual, mutual recriminations were the consequence; and our author's account of these we shall transcribe.

* During the progress of this disastrous event, sir Henry Clinton had used every exertion to assist lord Cornwallis. He was deceived even at the moment of sir Samuel Hood's arrival, in his information on the comparative force of the fleets; nor could he believe the French admiral had left the West Indies without detaching any part of his force for protection of the trade, or that sir George Rodney would, unless assured of a superiority, have proceeded with three ships of the line for Europe, and left others in the West Indies, contrary to his positive orders from government to watch and controul the operations

of de Grasse. Sir Samuel Hood contributed to sir Henry Clinton's error, by a positive statement that he possessed a force superior to that of the enemy; an assurance which was not known to be unfounded, till after the engagement between Graves and de Grasse on the fifth of September. Sir Henry justly considered an attack on lord Cornwallis at York town impossible, unless the British fleet was over-matched in the Chesapeake; he knew that the original intention of the combined forces was to attack New York, and therefore considered their first efforts against York town as a feint. Yet he imparted the intelligence he received to lord Cornwallis, countermanded his first order for returning the detachments, and sent all the recruits and convalescents he could spare from the defence of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, which required nine thousand men, for the augmentation of his lordship's force. When the intention to attack York town became certain, Clinton prepared to dispatch a reinforcement of seven thousand men; but the condition of the fleet delayed their sailing till the nineteenth of October, the day on which the British army surrendered. On his arrival off the Chesapeake, sir Henry Clinton received information that lord Cornwallis had capitulated, which rendered unnecessary the plans he had preconceived with the admiral for forcing the enemy at anchor, and taking up a position within them in James river. The practicability of this attempt was ascertained by captain Elphinstone in the *Experiment*, who had reconnoitred the enemy's position, and made the signal accordingly. Had lord Cornwallis not surrendered, it was sir Henry Clinton's intention to land his forces on that river, and move towards the enemy, lord Cornwallis making a sally to favour their joint operations. The terms in which lord Cornwallis announced and accounted for his capture, occasioned a series of discussions. On his arrival at New York, his lordship complained that his service was slighted in some instances, and in others not adequately supported by the commander in chief. His plan for reducing Virginia had been approved, he said, by the ministry, and was favoured by the king, but discouraged by Clinton; and in his public dispatch on the surrender of York town, he accused sir Henry Clinton of withholding a reinforcement which he had positively promised by the fifth of October.

In answer to these allegations, sir Henry Clinton alleged that the plan for invading Virginia, the most warlike of all the provinces, was improper as to time and circumstances, improperly forced on administration by an inferior, without the privity of his superior officer, and undertaken in a rash and unadvised manner. His positive orders were to consider the preservation of South Carolina, and safety of Charleston, paramount to all other objects, both which were endangered, and even lost to view, by the chase of Greene across North Carolina, and the subsequent incursion into Virginia. In that province sir Henry Clinton had never projected any solid operation, convinced that the predatory and destructive excursions he had directed, added to the general distress, would have terminated the American war, if the British army could be preserved from any important disaster. Washington's troops had no object but New York to which their attacks could be directed, had not lord Cornwallis presented himself to their aim; and many errors were alleged against his mode of defence. He was

blamed for posting himself injudiciously at York and Gloucester; for not attacking the enemy in detail as they were forming the siege, when the corps under the command of la Fayette at Williamsburg did not consist of more than two thousand men, and might with ease have been dislodged or captured before the junction of the other troops; and for neglecting easy and certain means of escape from the overwhelming force which ultimately engulfed him. The relief by means of the fleet was only promised, if the ships could be enabled to sail by the fifth of October, and the promise was accompanied with an instruction to lord Cornwallis to use every exertion for saving at least part of the army, should he have reason to apprehend that reinforcements could not arrive sufficiently early.' Vol. iii. p. 408.

Yet, even at that moment, the cause of America was said to be almost hopeless: but we had so often heard the same language, that it ceased to affect the mind. Our author's remarks we shall, however, subjoin.

'The progress of the British army in pursuit of la Fayette was attended with general destruction of stores and property. The distress of the Americans was now extreme; their operations retarded by the want of enthusiasm and public confidence; their paper currency so much depreciated that it no longer answered the purposes of its emission, while the recent ravages in the hitherto favoured province of Virginia, completed the public despair. The incapacity of congress to proceed in the contest was ascertained by intercepted dispatches, and the prisoners taken by Tarleton represented as the prevailing sentiment, that if Great Britain could hinder the intended co-operation of the French fleet and army with the native forces, during the ensuing autumn, the French alliance would be dissolved, and an union with the mother-country cordially embraced both by congress and the people. No exertion was necessary on the part of the British armies; a system studiously defensive, preventing all splendid advantages on the side of their opponents, would have reduced them to despair, and frustrated all hopes of ultimate success.' Vol. iii. p. 402.

'After the surrender of lord Cornwallis, the attainment of this object by force appeared no more certain than at any previous period. The resources of America were exhausted, the long interruption of commerce produced a lamentable want of all necessaries, a want felt from the highest to the lowest classes throughout the colonies. No art or coercion could give circulation to the paper currency; and not only the friends of Great Britain, but the warmest adherents of America, considered the maintenance of the army for another year, and still more the establishment of independency, as utterly impossible, and hardly desirable*. Sir Henry Clinton himself, after the surrender of lord Cornwallis, forwarded an assurance to administration, that with a reinforcement of ten thousand men only, he would be responsible for the conquest of America†.' Vol. iii. p. 507.

* See intercepted Letters of Silas Deane, Remembrancer, vol. xiii. p. 71.

† From private information.

These events close a scene of peculiar singularity and interest. It was reserved for Great-Britain alone to lose an extensive continent, though possessed of the wishes and the hearts of the majority; and, by a series of errors and misconduct, to proceed from less to greater misfortunes, from checks to defeats, from the loss of posts to the capitulation of entire armies. To the world at large, these events are still more distressing. No corollary follows more evidently a proposition, than that the first rebellion of America has occasioned the late fatal disasters in Europe. Had not France learnt the lesson of anarchy and rebellion, she would not now have been an imposing despot. Holland, Switzerland, and Italy, might have remained free.—The picture is too distressing!

We shall conclude our review of this work, by noticing the more prominent features of this æra in another number.

ART. VI.—*The Stranger in France: or, a Tour from Devonshire to Paris. Illustrated by Engravings in Aqua Tinta of Sketches, taken on the Spot. By John Carr, Esq. 4to. Small Paper, 1l. 1s. Large Paper, 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1803.*

AFTER a varied and eventful warfare, in which personal animosity was occasionally mixed with military opposition, it is not easy to obtain a faithful description of France, of its government, and its present situation. Mr. Carr seems willing to be pleased, and apparently sees many objects in a favourable view. Of the first consul and his government, he speaks with candour, and perhaps somewhat too advantageously; and, in various instances of previous enormities, cruelties, and massacres, he is more indebted to his numerous notes of admiration, than to his language, to express his detestation. On the whole, however, the 'Stranger in France' is by far the most pleasing and communicative traveler whom we have had the good fortune to accompany.

We find some interesting and attractive details *in limine*; but must hasten over what is least captivating in the entertainment. The picture of the emigrants embarking for their native country, tremulously alive to the dangers that might there await them, apprehensive of the reception they might meet, anxious for the friends, whom, instead of greeting, they might find sunk in the lowly grave, is delineated in a manner approaching that of Sterne. The whole is admirably finished; and we will not mutilate it.

The descriptions of Hayre and Rouen are pleasing, and more

valuable, as the route from Calais is the most trodden; and travelers in general, eager to reach Paris, neglect, as uninteresting, the intermediate steps. We shall select a short passage from the description of Havre.

‘The approach to the light houses, through a row of elms, is very pleasant; they stand upon an immense high perpendicular cliff, and are lofty square buildings, composed of fine light brown free stone, the entrance is handsome, over which there is a good room, containing four high windows, and a lodging room for the people, who have the care of the light, the glass chamber of which we reached, after ascending to a considerable height, by a curious spiral stone stair case. The lantern is composed, of ninety immense reflecting lamps, which are capable of being raised or depressed with great ease by means of an iron windlass. This large lustre, is surrounded with plates of the thickest French glass, fixed in squares of iron, and discharges a prodigious light, in dark nights. A furnace of coal, was formerly used, but this has been judiciously superseded by the present invention. Round the lantern, is a gallery with an iron balustrade, the view from this elevation upon the beach, the entrance of the Seine, Honfleur (where our Henry III is said to have fought the French armies, and to have distinguished himself by his valour) the distant hills of Lower Normandy, and the ocean, is truly grand.’ p. 27.

Santerre, it is remarked, lives unnoticed, in a little village near Paris. The trade of blood has not been to him gainful; for ‘Robespierre was not a very liberal patron: he kept his bloodhounds lean and keen, and poorly fed them with the rankest offal.’ Yet let us be candid, and state, that the character of Santerre may have been misrepresented. His necessity, and not his will, may have consented: at least this is what he wishes to inculcate; and his defence is not wholly unsupported.

The description of Rouen is very entertaining; but we cannot select any passage with advantage: the whole will, we think, interest the reader, who will lay down the book with reluctance. The anecdote relating to the late governor Wall we may be allowed to select.

‘As I have alluded to the fate of governor W——, I will conclude this chapter by relating an anecdote of the terror and infatuation of guilt, displayed in the conduct of this wretched man, in the presence of a friend of mine, from whom I received it—A few years before he suffered, fatigued with life, and pursued by poverty, and the frightful remembrance of his offences, then almost forgotten by the world, he left the south of France for Calais, with an intention of passing over to England, to offer himself up to its laws, not without the cherished hope that a lapse of twenty years had swept away all evidence of his guilt.

‘At the time of his arrival at this port town, the hotel in which madame H—— was waiting for a packet to Dover was very crowded—the landlord requested of her, that she would be pleased to permit

two gentlemen, who were going to England, to take some refreshment in her room; these persons proved to be the unfortunate Brooks, a king's messenger, charged with important dispatches to his court, and governor W——. The latter was dressed like a decayed gentleman, and bore about him all the indications of his extreme condition. They had not been seated at the table long, before the latter informed the former, with evident marks of perturbation, that his name was W——, that having been charged in England with offences, which, if true, subjected him to heavy punishment, he was anxious to place himself at the disposal of its laws, and requested of him, as he was an English messenger, that he would consider him as his prisoner, and take charge of him.

‘ The messenger, who was much surprised by the application, told him, that he could not upon such a representation take him into custody, unless he had an order from the duke of Portland's office to that effect, and that in order to obtain it, it would be proper for him to write his name, that it might be compared with his hand writing in the office of the secretary at war, which he offered to carry over with him. Governor W—— still pressed him to take him into custody, the messenger more strongly declined it, by informing him that he was the bearer of dispatches of great importance to his court, that he must immediately cross the channel, and should hazard a passage, although the weather looked lowering, in an open boat, as no packets had arrived, and that consequently it was altogether impossible to take him over, but again requested him to write his name, for the purpose already mentioned; the governor consented, pens and paper were brought, but the hand of the murderer shook so dreadfully, that he could not write it, and in an agony of mind, bordering upon frenzy, he rushed out of the room, and immediately left the town.

‘ The messenger entered the boat, and set sail; a storm quickly followed, the boat sunk in sight of the pier, and all on board but one of the watermen, perished!!!’ P. 59.

The entrance to Paris, from Normandy, is not uninteresting.

‘ As we approached the capital, the country looked very rich and luxuriant. We passed through the forest of St Germain, where there is a noble palace, built upon a lofty mountain. The forest abounds with game, and formerly afforded the delights of the chace to the royal Nimrods of France. Its numerous green alleys are between two and three miles long, and in the form of radii unite in a centre. The forest and park extend to the barrier, through which, we immediately entered the town of St. Germain, distant from Paris about twelve miles, which is a large and populous place, and in former periods, during the royal residence, was rich and flourishing, but having participated in the blessings of the revolution, presents an appearance of considerable poverty and squalid decay. Here we changed horses for the last post, and ran down a fine, broad paved, royal road through rows of stately elms, upon an inclined plane, until the distant, and wide, but clear display of majestic domes, awful towers, and lofty spires, informed us that we approached the capital. I could not help comparing them with their cloud-capped brethren of London, over whose dim-discovered heads, a floating mass of unhealthy smoke, for ever suspends its

heavy length of gloom. Our carriage stopped at the Norman Barrier, which is the grand entrance to Paris, and here presents a magnificent prospect to the eye. The barrier is formed of two very large, and noble military stone lodges, having porticoes, on all sides, supported by massy Doric pillars. These buildings were given to the nation, by the National Assembly in the year 1792, and are separated from each other, by a range of iron gates, adorned with republican emblems. Upon a gentle declivity, through quadruple rows of elms, at the distance of a mile and a half, the gigantic statues of la Place de la Concorde (*ci-devant, de la revolution*) appear; beyond which, the gardens, and the palace of the Tuilleries, upon the centre tower of which, the tri-coloured flag was waving, form the back scene of this splendid spectacle. Before we entered la Place de la Concorde, we passed on each side of us, the beautiful, and favourite walks of the Parisians, called les Champs Elysées, and afterwards, on our left, the elegant palace of the Garde-meuble; where we entered the streets of Paris, and soon afterwards alighted at the bureau of the diligences; from which place, I took a *fiacre* (a hackney-coach) and about six o'clock in the evening presented myself to the mistress of the hotel de Rouen, for the women of France generally transact all the masculine duties of the house. r. 74.

The usual objects of curiosity at Paris are described; but the author's manner is not a hackneyed one. He gives the zest of novelty to common scenes, by copying from his own feelings. We are tempted to transcribe much, yet, in justice, must restrain this wish, and copy only a few pages as a specimen of his talents.

The following circumstances, respecting the infernal machine, merit notice. If authentic, they show the intrepidity of the Corsican in a striking light: but every hero has his moments of courage; and, from other accounts, we suspect that they are not now so frequent as formerly.

Upon leaving madame B—— I passed the Place de Carousel, and saw the ruins of the houses, which suffered by the explosion of the infernal machine, which afforded so much conversation in the world at the time, by which the first consul was intended to have been destroyed in his way to the National Institute of Music. This affair has been somewhat involved in mystery. It is now well known that monsieur Fouché, at the head of the police, was acquainted with this conspiracy from its first conception, and by his vigilant agents, was informed of the daily progress made in the construction of this destructive instrument, of the plan of which he had even a copy. The conspirators proceeded with perfect confidence, and as they thought with perfect security. Three days before it was quite completed, and ready for its fell purpose, from some surprise or dread of detection, they changed their place of meeting, and in one night removed the machine from the spot where it had been usually deposited. The penetrating eye of the police lost sight of them. Fouché, and his followers exercised their unrivalled talents for pursuit and discovery to no purpose. The baffled minister then waited upon Bonaparte, to whom he had regu-

larly imparted the result of every day's information respecting it, and told him that he could no longer trace the traitorous instrument of his assassination; and requested him, as he knew it must be completed by this time, not to go to any public places, until he had regained a knowledge of it. Bonaparte replied, that fear only made cowards, and conspirators brave; and that he had unalterably determined to go with his accustomed equipage to the National Concert that very evening. At the usual hour the first consul set off undismayed from the Thuilleries, a description of the machine, which was made to resemble a water-cask, being first given to the coachman, servants, and guards. As they proceeded, the advance guard passed it unobserved, but the coachman discovered it just as the consular carriage was on a parallel with it; instantly the dexterous and faithful charioteer lashed his horses into full speed, and turned the corner of the Rue Marcein. In one moment after, the terrible machine exploded, and covered the street with ruins. The thunder of its discharge shook the houses of Paris, and was heard at a considerable distance in the country. The first consul arrived in safety at the Hall of Music, and with every appearance of perfect tranquillity, entered his box amidst the acclamations of the crowded multitude. The range of buildings which was shattered by the explosion, has long offended the eye of taste, and presented a gloomy, and very inconvenient obstruction to the grand entrance of the palace. Bonaparte, with his usual judgment, which converts every event into some good, immediately after this affair, purchased the houses which were damaged, and the whole of this scene of ruins and rubbish is removing with all possible expedition, to the great improvement of this grand approach.' p. 95.

Again:—

'To show of what importance the ladies of the lower class in Paris are, I shall relate a little anecdote of Bonaparte, in which he is considered to have exhibited as much bravery as he ever displayed in the field of battle.

'The *poissardes*, whose name alone will awaken some emotion in the mind of the reader, from its horrible union with the barbarous massacres which discoloured the capital with blood during the revolution, have been from time immemorial accustomed, upon any great and fortunate event, to send a deputation of their sisterhood to the kings and ministers of France, and since the revolution to the various rulers of the republic, to offer their congratulations, accompanied by a large bouquet of flowers. Upon the elevation of Bonaparte to the supreme authority of France, according to custom, they sent a select number from their body to present him with their good wishes, and usual fragrant donation. The first consul sternly received them, and after rejecting their nosegay, fiercely told them to retire, and in future to attend to their husbands, their children, and their fisheries, and never more to attempt an interference in matters relating to the state. Upon which he ordered the pages in waiting to close the door upon them. He thought no doubt that "Omnium manibus res humanæ reguntur: paucorum capita sufficient." — Human affairs require the hands of all, whilst the heads of few are sufficient.

'These formidable dames, so celebrated for their ferocity, retired

chagrined and chapfallen from the presence of the imperious consul, and have not attempted to force either their congratulations, or their bouquets upon any of the public functionaries since that period. Such a repulse as this, offered to a body of people, more formidable from their influence than the lazzaroni of Naples, would in all human probability have cost any one of the kings of France his crown. I received this anecdote from the brother of one of the ministers of France, to whom this country is much indebted. Before the high daring of Bonaparte, every difficulty seems to droop, and die.' p. 96.

One difficulty remains, which, we trust, will see *him* 'droop and die.'

The following apostrophe to David, a sublime painter, but one of the blood-hounds of the revolution, whose soul was never-satiated with carnage, is in our author's best manner.

Farewell, David! when years have rolled away, and time has mellowed the works of thy sublime pencil, mayst thou be remembered only as their creator; may thy fame repose herself upon the *tableau* of the dying Socrates, and the miraculous passage of the Alpine hero, may the ensanguined records of thy political frenzy, moulder away, and may science, who knew not blood till thou wert known, whose pure, and hallowed inspirations have made men happier, and better, till thou wert born, implore for thee forgiveness, and whilst, with rapture she points to the immortal images of thy divine genius, may she cover with an impenetrable pall, the pale, and shuddering, and bleeding victims of thy sanguinary soul!' p. 102.

Mr. Carr's account of M. and Madame O. is extremely interesting. Perhaps the remark, that *his* section at Paris, consisting of ONE THOUSAND THREE HUNDRED persons of rank and fortune, were reduced to *five*; and that these *only* had escaped the merciless guillotine, might have demanded some more energetic marks of detestation and horror than!! Our author's strongest reprobation consists only of !!! Let us select, however, the conduct of madame O. in the scene of blood and desolation.

'He spoke of his lady with all the tender eulogium of a young lover. Their union was entirely from attachment, and had been resisted on the part of madame O——, when he first addressed her, only because her fortune was humble, compared with his. He informed me, and I must not suppress the story, that in the time of blood, this amiable woman, who is remarkable for the delicacy of her mind, and for the beauty and majesty of her person, displayed a degree of coolness and courage, which, in the field of battle, would have covered the hero with laurels. One evening, a short period before the family left France, a party of those murderers, who were sent for by Robespierre, from the frontiers which divide France from Italy, and who were by that archfiend employed in all the butcheries, and massacres of Paris, entered the peaceful village of la Reine in search of monsieur O——.

His lady saw them advancing, and anticipating their errand, had just time to give her husband intelligence of their approach, who left his chateau by a back door, and secreted himself in the house of a neighbour. Madame O——, with perfect composure, went out to meet them, and received them in the most gracious manner. They sternly demanded Mons. O——, she informed them that he had left the country, and after engaging them in conversation, she conducted them into her drawing room, and regaled them with her best wines, and made her servants attend upon them with unusual deference and ceremony. Their appearance was altogether horrible, they wore leather aprons, which were sprinkled all over with blood, they had large horse pistols in their belts, and a dirk and sabre by their sides. Their looks were full of ferocity, and they spoke a harsh dissonant, *patois* language. Over their cups, they talked about the bloody business of that day's occupation, in the course of which they drew out their dirks, and wiped from their handles, clots of blood and hair. Madame O—— sat with them, undismayed by their frightful deportment. After drinking several bottles of Champaign and Burgundy, these savages began to grow good humoured, and seemed to be completely fascinated by the amiable and unembarrassed, and hospitable behaviour of their fair landlady. After carousing till midnight, they pressed her to retire, observing that they had been received so handsomely that they were convinced monsieur O—— had been misrepresented, and was no enemy to the good cause; they added that they found the wines excellent, and after drinking two or three bottles more, they would leave the house, without causing her any reason to regret their admission.

Madame O——, with all the appearance of perfect tranquillity and confidence in their promises, wished her unwelcome visitors a good night, and after visiting her children in their rooms, she threw herself upon her bed, with a loaded pistol in each hand, and, overwhelmed with suppressed agony and agitation, she soundly slept till she was called by her servants, two hours after the wretches had left the house.

P. 124.
If we stop here, it is not because we have exhausted the interesting passages of this volume. We mean only to excite curiosity, and induce the reader to examine the whole. The plates are tinted, and greatly superior to those drawings which, from the hurry of publication, and want of skill in the artists, have lately met our eyes, and excited our censures.

ART. VII. — *Translations of Denon's Travels.* (Continued from p. 85 of the present Volume.)

THE termination of the march of the French through Egypt was inscribed on a granitic rock, beyond the cataracts. In this neighbourhood, our author visited the quarries described by Pocock, and the ancient monastery of the cœnobites. The monasteries in Egypt display a singular mixture of ancient super-

stition and modern religion. Isis and Horus are metamorphosed into the virgin and child; hieroglyphics, mixed with representations of the crucifix. The residence of the *cenobites* scarcely offered conveniences: their cells were only four square walls, and their beds of brick: their only consolation must have been the conviction, that, in this unnatural seclusion, they were performing their duty. The rocks, in this part, are free-stone; and the quarries could only furnish this substance. On his return, M. Denon saw, at some distance, the ancient Ombos, the ruins of which are immense; for, as our author repeats, magnitude was the grand object in Egyptian structures. Immense masses of building, he observes in another place, were first raised: they were, in a subsequent period, ornamented; and afterwards, at another æra, had the addition of hieroglyphics. Below Ombos, vast quarries of free-stone were observed; and the caverns, whence the ornaments for buildings have been taken, are again adorned, as the *domus ultima* of individuals, whose figures are engraved on the rock. Sepulture was always preferred in the driest and most retired places: at this time, the dead are carried to the desert, where the bodies are not injured by moisture.

In their progress, the remains of temples constantly recur, without any appearance to point out the site of a palace or a house. This shows, in the author's opinion, the ancient hierarchy of the country. The priests were supreme, and the kings wholly under their command.

The palace with a hundred chambers, the only palace mentioned in the history of Egypt, was the work of a new form of government, in which the priests could no longer possess the same influence. The famous canals, of which history speaks so pompously, have preserved no magnificence, have neither causeways nor sluices, and the only facings and quays that I have met with on the banks of the Nile are very trifling works, compared to those colossal and immortal temples, whose precincts occupied a very large proportion of the space included within the walls that surrounded the towns. The Jesuits of Paraguay, perhaps, might have let us into the secret of the system of theocratic dominion; and in this case I should see in the rich country of Egypt nothing but a gloomy and mysterious government, weak kings, and a sad unhappy people.

On the 8th we set out on our march to meet Osman-Bey, who, we were informed, was to pass the Nile at Keneh. I had again the mortification of crossing the ground occupied by the ancient Thebes, with still less opportunity of examining it than at first; without measuring a single column, without taking a single sketch, without approaching a single monument, we followed the course of the Nile, avoiding both the temples of Medinet-Abu, the Memnonium, the temples of Kurna, which I passed on my left, and those of Luxor and Karnac, on my right—still temples—nothing but temples, and not a vestige of the hundred gates so celebrated in history; no walls,

quays, bridges, baths, or theatres; not a single edifice of public utility or convenience; notwithstanding all the pains which I took in the research, I could find nothing but temples, walls covered with obscure emblems, and hieroglyphics, which attested the ascendancy of the priesthood, who still seemed to reign over these mighty ruins, and whose empire constantly haunted my imagination.' Vol. ii. p. 194.

The battles, in their return, must not detain us. The unprincipled invaders of Egypt received some severe checks; and the spirit of Elphi Bey, now a visitor in England, was the source of numerous disasters. The enthusiastic bravery of the Meccans was equally destructive. Indeed, the coolness with which murders, massacres, robberies, and rapes, are described, must, to a feeling mind, be particularly painful; and we almost think, that, by divine permission, a set of dæmons were let loose to ravage this part of the globe, as a punishment for its former sins.

The chances of war prevent the regular advance of the French, and enable our author to add considerably to his descriptions and his collection of drawings. Near Negadi lies the shortest route between the desert and the Red Sea, and, of course, the route most frequented. It was then, however, the scene of murder and pillage; and thence our author returns to the Theban district. Numerous remains of the most superb buildings of antiquity here meet the eye; and, if the ruins of a large temple which he saw, constituted part of the last edifice on the eastern side, this side was two leagues and a half distant from the most western range of the temple. Indeed, our author describes the magnitude of these temples with a simplicity the most convincing of his truth, by saying that a village is occasionally built on part of a site of one of them. The immense extent of their ruins, as described by the most credible authors, render them, indeed, most extraordinary efforts of human power.

It is probable that the temples of Karnac and Luxor were built in the time of Sesostris, when the flourishing condition of the Egyptians gave birth to the arts among them, and when these arts were perhaps displayed to the world for the first time. The vanity of erecting colossal edifices, was the first consideration of opulence; and it was not as yet known, that a perfection in the arts bestows on their productions a grandeur which is independent of their magnitudes. It has, in after ages, been ascertained, that the small rotunda of Vicenza is a finer edifice than St. Peter's at Rome; and that the school of surgery in Paris, is, in point of style, as grand as the Pantheon in the above-mentioned city. In short, a cameo may be preferable to a colossal statue. It is therefore the sumptuousness alone of the Egyptians which is to be seen at Karnac, where not only quarries, but mountains are piled together, and hewn out into massive proportions, the traits of which are as feebly executed, as the parts are clumsily connected; and these masses are loaded with uncouth bas-reliefs, and tasteless hieroglyphics, by which the art of sculpture is disgraced. The only objects there which are sublime, both with regard to their di-

mensions, and the skill which their workmanship displays, are the obelisks, and a few of the ornaments of the outer gates, the style of which is admirably chaste. If in the other parts of this edifice the Egyptians appear to us to be giants, in these latter productions they are geniuses. I am accordingly persuaded that these sublime embellishments were posteriorly added to the colossal monuments of Karnac. It must however be granted, that the plan of the temple is noble and grand. The art of contriving beautiful plans, has, in architecture, invariably preceded that of the fine execution of the details, and has constantly survived for several centuries the corruption of the latter, as is proved by a comparison of the monuments of Thebes, with those of Esneh and Tentyra, as well as by that of the edifices of the reign of Dioclesian with those of the time of Augustus. Vol. ii. p. 258.

The columns of these vast buildings are from seven to twelve feet in diameter. The avenues are ornamented on each side with rows of massy sphinxes. Statues of vast bulk, and obelisks of singular height, are among the remains.

Our author's repeated returns to Thebes and Tentyra were singularly fortunate for the cause of science and the arts, as he was able to copy numerous remains, and, among the rest, the famous zodiac. The peculiar structure of the temples, which appears from their ruins, excites numerous speculations, which, from their uncertainty, we need not follow. The deity is Priapus—the sensible form of productive nature. His habit is sacerdotal; and he holds in one hand a hook, in the other a flail—instruments of the most ancient and most useful of arts, husbandry: but they are strangely misrepresented by M. Denon, who tells us that the first is to restrain, and the other to punish. In this neighbourhood, also, our author saw the crocodile—an animal, by no means so dangerous as it has been represented. The soldiers bathed daily in the Nile, without suffering from its ferocity; and it seems by no means particularly voracious. General Beliard kept a young one four months without eating; and it did not seem to suffer from inanition. At Tentyra, Isis is the presiding divinity.

The plagues of Egypt began to visit these visitants; of which the first was the kamsin, styled the hurricane of Egypt; but evidently a hurricane of inflammable air.

We had already passed, with security one half of the season in which it appears, when in the evening of the 18th of May, I felt myself entirely overcome by a suffocating heat; it seemed as if the fluctuation of the air was suddenly suspended. I went out to bathe, in order to overcome so painful a sensation, when I was struck on my arrival at the bank of the Nile, with a new appearance of nature around me; this was a light and colours which I had not yet seen. The sun, without being concealed, had lost its rays; it had even less lustre to the eye than the moon, and gave a pale light without shade; the water no longer reflected its rays, but appeared in agitation; every thing had changed its usual aspect; it was now the flat shore that seemed

luminous, and the air dull and opaque; the yellow horizon shewed the trees on the surface of a dirty blue; flocks of birds were flying off before the cloud; the frightened animals ran loose in the country, followed by the shouting inhabitants, who vainly attempted to collect them together again; the wind, which had raised this immense mass of vapour, and was urging it forward, had not yet reached us; we thought that by plunging our bodies in the water, which was then calm, we could prevent the baneful effects of this mass of dust, which was advancing from the south-west; but we had hardly entered the river when it began to swell all at once, as if it would overflow its channel; the waves passed over our heads, and we felt the bottom heave up under our feet; our clothes were conveyed away along with the shore itself, which seemed to be carried off by the whirlwind which had now reached us; we were compelled to leave the water, and our wet and naked bodies being beat upon by a storm of sand, were soon encrusted with a black mud, which prevented us from dressing ourselves; enlightened only by a red and gloomy sun, with our eyes smarting, our noses stuffed up, and our throats clogged with dust, so that we could hardly breathe, we lost each other and our way home, and arrived at our lodgings at last one by one, groping our way, and guided only by the walls, which marked our track. We could now easily conceive the dreadful situation of those who are surprised with such a phenomenon of nature, when crossing the exposed and naked deserts; and we were so accustomed to the serene sky of Egypt, that we could hardly bear with any patience such a sudden transition. Vol. ii. p. 326.

The next day the same mass of dust, attended with similar appearances, traveled along the desert of Libya, following the chain of mountains. Flashes of lightning, it is observed, appeared to pierce, with difficulty, through this dense vapour. Air, fire, wind, and dust, were confounded; and it may have been said, with truth, chaos is come again. One fatal effect of the kamsin is the loss of the salubrity and transparency of the Nile. The river throws up flakes of foul mud, which exhales a mephitic odour; and the residence in Upper Egypt is at this time truly uncomfortable. These inconveniences are not relieved, till the Nile again rises. To the kamsin, at least on this occasion, swarms of locusts succeeded, which covered the ground, and devoured the herbage.

M. Denon next crosses the desert, accompanying an expedition to Cosseir, on the banks of the Red Sea. We now know that the passage of the desert, at this place, is not attended with great danger, or considerable inconvenience. The sand insensibly rises to mountains; and, to rocks of free-stone, breccias succeed, whose base is a green schistus, in which are imbedded masses of granite, porphyry, serpentine, and other primitive species. The castle and town of Cosseir are far from insignificant. The port and road are formed by reefs, which defend it from the north-north-west winds, and by a head-land that protects it from the south-south-east. This head-land, or cape, is lined of madrepores and corals; and, indeed, the quantity of

the latter is so great, as to justify the appellation of the Red Sea. 'The severe sadness of the country, the rigid aspect of the soil, and the insupportably dazzling reflexion of the sun from the white shelly shore,' render this situation truly uncomfortable. The water near the coast is, however, shallow; and it requires little reflexion to perceive that it will not be much longer a harbour. At present, it is the best port in the Red Sea, furnishes corn for Mecca, and receives coffee from Arabia. 'The coast is frightfully poor and barren; but the sea is rich in fish [*fishes*].' The travelers' journey was not useless; for they discovered water by digging wells, which was before usually brought from the Arabian coast.

Our author again returns to the neighbourhood of Thebes with an engineer, sent to ascertain the course of the Nile. In this excursion, he traces a variety of other remains, though he occasionally describes the architecture of a different era—probably the works of Grecian artists under the emperors—as Egyptian. The most laboured and best specimens were found in the most obscure corners. On a temple he observed a figure making an offering of two obelisks, which leads to a suspicion that these were occasionally votive works, as we know they are religious monuments. The fine-grained free-stone is said to preserve the strokes of the graver with all its original boldness and delicacy. The heat, at this time, was so great, as to be fatal to many of the party; and death, from this cause, is preceded by sickness, followed by faintings; closing the scene is at no great distance.

The chief object that remained in the neighbourhood of Thebes, was the tombs of the kings: but these were now the residence of enemies, who attacked the travelers, though, in general, mutual confidence seemed to be, in some measure, restored in the open country. These tombs are situated in a valley, on the west of Thebes, surrounded by rocks, whose gloomy sterility well adapts it for the abode of death. The door of these 'last mansions' is in a simple square frame, with an oval opening in the upper part, on which some hieroglyphics are inscribed. Within the door are long galleries, twelve feet wide, and twenty in height, cased with stucco, sculptured and painted.

The arches of an elegant elliptical figure, are covered with innumerable hieroglyphics, disposed with so much taste, that notwithstanding the singular grotesqueness of the forms, and the total absence of démitint, or aerial perspective, the ceilings make an agreeable whole, and a rich and harmonious association. Vol. iii. p. 34.

At the end of the galleries were the sarcophagi unconnected with each other, composed of a single block of granite, twelve feet long by eight in breadth, ornamented with hieroglyphics both within and with-

out; at one end they were rounded, and at the other squared, like that in the mosque of St. Athanasius at Alexandria: the tombs were covered by a lid of the same material, and of an enormous mass, shutting with a groove; but neither this precaution, nor these vast blocks of stone, brought from such a distance and at so great an expence, have been able to preserve the relics of the sovereigns from the attempts of avarice; all the tombs are violated: on the lid of the first sarcophagus that we met with, the figure of the king, or of some protecting divinity, is sculptured; but the figure itself is so worn, that it is impossible to distinguish by the dress whether it is a king, a priest or a divinity. In other tombs the sepulchral chamber is surrounded by a pilastered portico, whose galleries bordered with recesses supported in the same manner, and lateral chambers hollowed into the rock are covered with a white and fine stucco, on which are coloured hieroglyphics in a most wonderful state of preservation; for, except two of the eight tombs that I visited, which have been injured by water trickling down them, all the rest are still in full perfection, and the paintings as fresh as when they were first executed: the colours of the ceilings, exhibiting yellow figures on a blue ground, are executed with a taste that might decorate our most splendid saloons.

The trumpet had already sounded to horse, when I discovered some little chambers, on the walls of which were represented all kinds of arms, such as panoplies, coats of mail, tyger's skins, bows, arrows, quivers, pikes, javelins, sabres, casques, and whips: in another was a collection of household utensils, such as caskets, chests of drawers, chairs, sofas, and beds, all of exquisite forms, and such as might well grace the apartments of modern luxury: as these were probably accurate representations of the objects themselves, it is almost a proof that the ancient Egyptians employed for their furniture Indian woods, carved and gilded, which they covered with embroidery; besides these were represented various smaller articles, as vases, coffee-pots, ewers with their basons, a tea-pot and basket. Another chamber was consecrated to agriculture, in which were represented all its various instruments, a sledge similar to those in use at present, a man sowing grain by the side of a canal, from the borders of which the inundation is beginning to retire, a field of corn reaped with a sickle, fields of rice with men watching them. In a fourth chamber was a figure clothed in white, playing on a harp with eleven cords: the figure was represented with ornaments, and as made of the same kind of wood as modern ones.' Vol. iii. p. 34.

We have selected this passage, that our readers may compare it with the descriptions of Bruce, which we think it confirms: the engravings still more pointedly support that author, whose authenticity has been too rashly questioned. The grottoes of Kurnu are of a similar kind, once, perhaps, the residence of original inhabitants; afterwards the tombs of their monarchs and nobles. The drawings were free and elegant: they were consequently, we think, not Egyptian.

The next day I was conducted to new tombs and galleries, which were less winding, and would serve as very agreeable habitations from

their situation, which enjoys day-light, pure and healthful air, and a fine prospect: these were not different from the others in any point of decoration, they had similar ornaments and paintings. The rock, which is of a gravelly nature, is coated with a smooth stucco, on which are painted, in every colour, subjects of funereal processions, much less laboured indeed than the bas-reliefs, but equally interesting, from the subjects which are here represented. I regretted that the part which had been injured prevented me from following the whole order of these ceremonies, but the remains that are still perfect attest their extreme magnificence.

‘The figures of the gods are here carried by priests upon litters, with banners waving over their heads, and followed by personages bearing golden vases of several forms, calumets, arms, loaves of bread, victuals of different kinds, and coffers of various construction.

‘I could not distinguish in this procession which was the corpse; perhaps it was enclosed in some sarcophagus, and surmounted by the figures of the gods; the women marched in order, playing on musical instruments; one group of this kind was formed of three singers accompanying each other, one with the harp, another with a kind of guitar, and the third probably with some wind instrument; but here the figure is too much injured to enable us to determine what it might be.’
Vol. iii. p. 60.

The engravings at Medinet Abu are interesting: but we cannot adopt our author's hypothesis, who considers them as monuments of the victories of Sesostris in *India*. They represent, probably, some fabulous exploit in the more immediate vicinity of Egypt, probably Syria and Arabia. The hero *alone* pursues an army, seated in a chariot, which bears only himself. He is of a gigantic stature; and holds an immense bow, from which he shoots arrows on a *bearded long-haired* enemy. The prisoners are clothed in *flowing striped* robes: their hair long and matted. The whole is illustrated by vast tables, filled with hieroglyphics.

‘Returning to the left by another side of these galleries, a long bas-relief is seen, that represents, in two lines, a triumphal march: it is probably the same hero returning from his conquests: some soldiers covered with armour prove that the triumph is military, though a little further on nothing is to be seen but priests, or persons of the class of the initiated, without arms, and with long and transparent tunics: the arms of the hero are covered with these garments; he is borne on the shoulders of men, on a palanquin, with all the attendants of a divinity; before and behind him march priests, bearing palm-branches and calumets, and incense is presented to him. He arrives in this state at the temple of the tutelar deity of Thebes, whom I have already described, and offers to the god a sacrifice, in which he officiates as priest; the march continues, and the god is borne by twenty-four priests; the bull Apis, with the attributes of divinity, marches before the hero, and a long train of personages follow, holding each a banner, on the greater number of which are the repre-

sentations of different deities. When arrived at the altar, a child appears with his hands tied behind his back, who is about to be immolated before the conqueror, who has stopped to receive this horrible sacrifice, or to assist at this execrable holocaust; beside them stands a priest, who is breaking the stem of a flower, and birds, who are flying away, emblems of the separation of the soul from the body. The account which Longus and Apuleius, in the romances of *Theagenes and the Golden Ass*, have transmitted to us of human sacrifices among the Egyptians, is therefore not a fable, and these polished people still retained some resemblance to barbarians. Next the hero himself makes a sacrifice to the God Apis, of a sheaf of wheat; a protecting genius accompanies him throughout; he changes his dress in the different parts of the ceremony, which perhaps marks his various dignities or degrees of initiation, but the same physiognomy is constantly preserved, which shews, that it is a portrait; his air is noble, august, and mild. In one picture he is holding nine persons, confined by the same chain. Are these the passions personified? or, do they represent nine conquered nations? Incense is offered to him in honour of these victories: a priest writes his annals, and consigns them to sacred memorial. Vol. iii. p. 68.

We know not that the representation of a person, holding what appears to be a pen in his hand, proves that the Egyptians had written books, as our author contends; nor that the roll of papyrus, which he found in the hand of a fine mummy, confirms the idea. The roll, however, is a singular curiosity; and we trust that its contents will not be concealed. Our author afterwards visited several of the tombs, but was not fortunate enough to find one that had not been already spoiled. He saw, however, the cause why so many little images of baked clay, with a whip in one hand, and a bent stick in another, were found near them. In reality, it appeared that the bodies were laid on a bed composed of these images, though the reason was unknown. Circumcision seemed to him to have been universally practised at a very early era. Depilation was not common among the women: their hair, on the contrary, was long and flexible: the heads were in a fine style.

M. Denon examined the two colossi, supposed to be those of Memnon. They are represented as without 'grace, expression, or action,' and as possessing nothing which seduces the judgement. Their proportions are, however, faultless; and, in the author's opinion, the simplicity of attitude, and want of decided expression, give a striking majesty and seriousness. If the limbs had been distorted, in order to express some violent passion, the harmony of their outline would have been, he thinks, lost. In fact, every thing in Egypt must be grand or beautiful. If otherwise, it must be made so. The block of granite between the statues is, he believes, the remains of the famous colossal statue of Osymandias; and the figures, those of his wife and

daughter. The sound, supposed to be uttered by the statue of Memnon at the rising of the sun, he suspects to have originated from enthusiasm or fancy.

M. Denon was now hurried away; and his return to Cairo, by the Nile, offered nothing peculiarly interesting. The victory over the Turks at Aboukir is described in the true style of French gasconade. This, however, was not wanted; for the defeat was complete. He returns to Alexandria; and, at one in the morning, is told that Bonaparte waits for him on the beach. They escape the English cruisers off Alexandria; and proceed in a northerly course, till they stretch westward to Corsica. In their return, they fall in with the English fleet, but are saved by a timely fog.

It is now necessary to make a few observations on the work itself, and the three translations before us. These, however, need not be extensive. The narrative of Denon displays all the warm enthusiasm, the eager vanity, of a modern Frenchman. With respect to military events, and the general conduct of his countrymen, he must be attended to with some reserve. The descriptions of the country, however, of its remains, and of its inhabitants, are apparently faithful. His commendations are certainly often extravagant: he speaks as he felt; and he arrived in Egypt, with all his enthusiasm alive, determined to be pleased, resolved to admire whatever he found. With his observations much disgusting frivolity is mixed; and, at times, the most ridiculous fancies. He does not, however, dwell on them; nor, indeed, do they affect his general conduct. A pen may be drawn through them, without losing, in the whole, two pages, or without injuring, in a single passage, the context. If the entire work be examined, and fairly appreciated, we may consider it as a description of Egypt and its remaining antiquities, equally full, valuable, and authentic. Many minuter circumstances may probably be corrected: many important objects, we think, could not be added. Of the form of the work, and of its ornaments, we have already spoken.

M. Denon represents himself as a pioneer; he has traced the way only; and leaves its completion to other hands. Without a metaphor, discussions form no part of his subject; and his work is, on that account, more valuable. Had he indulged them, a pre-conceived opinion might have tinged his view, might have been a medium to distort the representation. At present it is offered, and, we believe, truly, as a faithful description. A still more superb work is announced, including the disquisitions of the Institute, adorned in the best style which French artists, of every description, can execute.

Of the translations and the ornaments of the English versions, which have now been long before the public, we need say little. The first, in order, was Mr. Kendal's, published with a

suspicious haste, and, in some passages, ludicrously erroneous. He has, in a few instances, abridged the narrative; and employed the third person, which lessens the animation of the style, and reduces Denon, seemingly, to the necessity of an interpreter. This translation has, however, gained its purpose, which appears to have been, by its rapid publication, to take an early advantage of public curiosity. The plates are few, and the execution not striking. A contracted engraving of the representation of the battle of the pyramids possesses some merit.

Mr. Aikin's translation followed at no great distance; and indeed, as we have said, to translate Denon is no very difficult task, as his idiom is almost English. We have compared this version, in many parts, with the original, and think it a more accurate representation of its substance than its manner. It is somewhat diffuse, and wants the simple elegance of M. Denon's narrative. The plates are numerous, and, on the whole, well executed. We perceive but two of the originals wanting; viz. Nos. 23 and 51: but we may, perhaps, have overlooked these, as the order of their arrangement differs.

Mr. Blagdon's translation is complete, though in a small compass, and executed with accuracy and perspicuity. Few of the plates can, of course, be given: but the objects are well chosen; and, when the pride and form are considered, it merits considerable commendation.

ART. VIII.—*Annals of Medicine for the Year 1802. Exhibiting a concise View of the latest and most important Discoveries in Medicine and Medical Philosophy. By Andrew Duncan, Sen. M. D. &c. and Andrew Duncan, Jun. M. D. &c. Vol. II. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Robinsons. 1803.*

AN apology is made for the delay of this annual volume, which, by some accident, was further delayed in its progress at this metropolis; whence what seems to have appeared in Edinburgh early in May, was not published in London till the end of August. The arrangement, and general merits and faults, are the same as in the preceding; so that we shall immediately proceed to the contents. We indeed hoped, but we hoped in vain, that a little remonstrance might have stimulated to more activity, to some exertion of discernment and judgement in the choice of works.

The publications analysed are M. Guyton Morveau's 'Treatise on the Means of purifying Air and preventing Contagion;' Dr. Haygarth's 'Letter to Dr. Percival, on the Prevention of infectious Fever;' Dr. Stanger's 'Remarks on the Necessity and Means of suppressing contagious Fever in the Metropolis;' Desgenette's 'Medical History of the Army of the East;' M.

Campet's 'Practical Treatise on the fatal Diseases which prevail in the Torrid Zone;' Dr. Dumas's 'Principles of Physiology;' Mr. Russell's 'Treatise on morbid Affections of the Knee-Joint;' Dr. Herdman's 'Dissertation on white Swellings of the Joints, and the Doctrine of Inflammation;' Dr. Pearson's 'Examination of the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons;' and Mr. Bryce's 'Practical Observations on the Inoculation of the Cow-Pox.' These works we have already examined; or the accounts wait among numerous claimants for admission, except M. Dumas's Physiology, and M. Campet's Practical Treatise. Of the former, the two first parts only have appeared; and, though long in our hands, they did not, from any novelty of observation, claim our particular attention. The arrangement only seems to merit commendation. M. Campet's work may not again occur to us; and we shall remark, from the analysis in this volume, that the principal diseases mentioned are spasmodic. In the tetanus from wounds, our author's applications are highly stimulating. He records an instance of a fetus in the Fallopian tube, in which, as in the case mentioned in the Edinburgh Transactions, the tube was pervious on the side next the uterus. The *mal rouge* resembles the palagria of the Italians, the elephantiasis of Sauvages, and the disease arising from the ergot. It begins with a red spot, and ends in a general depravation of the fluids, dissolution of the bones, mortification, &c. It is, he thinks, the endemic disease of Nigritia, and introduced into the new world by the African slaves.

The first of the medical observations, in the second section, is the continuation of Dr. Sherwen's Letter on bilious Disorders, dated from the Ganges. The first disease whose remedies are noticed, is the bilious fever. The practice is salutary and judicious, but in no respect new. The second is the bloody flux, or dysentery: in this disease, our author was unsuccessful: but want of success, while in an unhealthy situation, does not reflect discredit, either on his attention or abilities. He speaks of the good effects of tamarinds, as an accidental circumstance. It is singular that neither Dr. Sherwen, nor the author of the notes signed A, seems acquainted with Zimmermann's work, where tamarinds are so highly commended. Wax, it is observed, is often recommended in dysenteries; and the preparation of a kind of soap from wax, soluble in the fluids, is added in the postscript; viz. by gently melting an ounce of wax with a drachm of aq. kali. On the subjects of the disease styled the 'liver,' and on the 'prickly heat,' we meet with no remark of importance.

II. Observations on the Duration and Course of Fever in Britain, and on the Efficacy of Medicine in interrupting its Course, and in shortening its Duration. By William Brown,

M.D. one of the Surgeons to the Royal Infirmary of Edinburgh.

This paper contains many judicious remarks: but it is apparently too extensive, and, perhaps, somewhat too circumlocutory for a work of this nature. Mr. Brown, from the records of a well-regulated infirmary, examines two questions, whether any particular days are more favourable for the termination of fever than others? and whether medicine has any power of extinguishing, or shortening, the duration of fever? With respect to the first question, he finds that, of 280 cases, 172 terminated on the days accounted critical, and 108 on the days not critical. The decision, however, of this question, be it what it may, cannot, we think, depend on any records, unless it be ascertained with what degree of attention the period of the attack of fever was determined. We know this point is often fixed in a manner highly vague and unsatisfactory; and, unless particular attention be paid to it, of 20 cases 19 will be determined erroneously. This, we perceive, was the case in the annals of this very hospital; for, on the fourteenth day, were 38 favourable terminations; but, on the thirteenth, there were 17; and, on the fifteenth, 13. This proportion never occurs on those days when the attack is carefully ascertained. Thus, also, on the twentieth, there were 12; and, on the nineteenth, 13 favourable cases: but no terminations on the twenty-first are recorded. We are warranted, however, in supposing, that, if noticed, they would have been much more numerous; not only because the twenty-first is considered by observers, as a day of equal or superior power, to the twentieth, but because the usual error in reckoning places the termination a day too forward. Our author, from the same records, examines whether the terminations on the critical days were more perfect than on the non-critical. The result does not turn out in favour of the critical days: but, from such inquiries, no opinion can be formed. The age of the patient, the violence of the symptoms, the time elapsed before medicine was employed, decidedly influence the subsequent events.

The second question is, whether medicine can shorten the duration of fever? Here, again, our author recurs to his records for a result which they cannot furnish. To decide the question, all the cases must be of the same epidemic (but this does not appear to have been the fact) the patients of the same age, strength, and constitution: the remedies well chosen, and adapted to the extinction of fever. Our author, indeed, supposes, from a pathological disquisition on the nature of fever, as well as from the records adduced, that medicine has little influence, at least the usual medicines; for he adduces the practice of a naval surgeon, who often succeeded by a remedy, the ingredients of which he concealed, but which, from its effects, appears

to be a combination of James's powder and calomel. At least we *know* that this combination, in robust habits, and in the early stage of fever, will produce the same general, and what may be called specific, effects. In fact, Mr. Brown does not properly limit the question. If a fever be opposed, on its first attack, we think it may be generally curtailed, or greatly mitigated. After a second paroxysm, it sometimes may be checked, but is more frequently only mitigated. Our author properly remarks, that we do not know whether it would be more than a single paroxysm: but the appearances will not greatly deceive an experienced practitioner: the prevailing epidemic will render his decision less liable to fallacy; and we think we have proved the efficacy of medicine in this respect, from one circumstance—that, though fever have been checked, a languor, and want of appetite, have continued during the usual period in which it would have prevailed, according to the nature of the epidemic. Our author objects to antimonials in nauseating doses; and we mean not to recommend them: but we suspect a little the source of his opposition, as he appears to be afraid of their purgative quality. Though we think purging highly useful in fevers, we own we have not found that discharge, as procured by antimonials, so efficacious as when the effect is produced by those medicines which excite the action of the muscular fibres of the intestines more powerfully. The pathologic disquisitions, however, though too extensive, are judicious and able.

After the fever is formed, if it cannot be checked by medicine, will any medical plan mitigate or shorten it? Mr. Brown seems to think that it may be mitigated; but doubts whether it can be curtailed. The severity of the symptoms may certainly be lessened, and, we think, the period diminished. A fever, for instance, which, without care, or under improper treatment, runs to twenty days, may be reduced to fourteen; and, by early active measures, we suspect that it has been confined to seven. If no fresh attack occur on the fourteenth, we have, in general, found fever begin to decline from that day: we speak of epidemic continued fevers.

‘III. History of the Case of a Man who discharged by the Anus a Portion of the Intestines, full fourteen Inches in Length. By Mr. John Bower of Doncaster. Communicated by Dr. George Pearson of London.’

This portion of the intestine was discharged in consequence of a bruise from the wheel of a carriage, which went over the abdomen. Dr. Monro and Mr. Thomas seem to think it was from intro-susception: but the man was in good health previous to the accident, which was not likely to produce such a conformation; and it was less likely that the wheel should thus accidentally bruise a previously diseased part. Add to this, that,

when a portion of intestine is discharged from intro-susception, the two ends easily unite. In this case they did not; and the union was at last imperfect, and seemed to take place by the adhesion of each end to the peritonæum, forming, during this process, fistulous ulcers externally, through which some fæces were discharged. We may remark, also, that, in this case, some portion of the mesentery was separated, which we do not recollect observing in the cases recorded by Dr. Sanden and others. Perhaps, in the convolution of the intestines, two *contiguous* extremities of the arc of a circle may have been bruised, and a separation may have taken place. This is by no means impossible; and it will account for all the appearances, if we except, perhaps, the extent of the portion intercepted.

‘ IV. The History of a Recovery from a singular Species of Hiccup, which had subsisted for several Months. By Dr. John Nelson Scott, Physician in the Isle of Mann.’

This case was not hiccup, but a convulsive action of the organs of respiration. It seems to have been cured by a blister applied to the cervical vertebræ, and by keeping the lungs from any irritation. Dr. Scott adds some remarks on the use of cold affusion in typhus. Tartar emetic, given some considerable time previous to the cold affusion, he thinks, will assist its effects. We should have been willing to have trusted his facts, if he had not added the jargon of ‘cutting short the morbid catenation.’

‘ V. History of a remarkable Case of Diabetes, treated in the Royal Infirmary of Edinburgh, and extracted from the Records of that Hospital.’

A particular journal of the case of diabetes mentioned in the last volume. We had before enough of it.

‘ VI. History of a considerable Wound of the Brain, attended with singular Circumstances. By Mr. Edward Barlow, Student of Medicine at Edinburgh, from Westmeath, Ireland.’

The wound was in the frontal bone, and some of the splinters had penetrated the left lateral ventricle, which occasioned a discharge of limpid fluid. Our author attributes the cure to calomel and opium; we, to the gradual filling up of the wound.

‘ VII. Case of a Gunshot Wound, with a Division of the Femoral Artery. By Mr. David Aitken, Assistant Surgeon of his Majesty's Ship Overysse.’

A shot, in this instance, passed through the thigh, a little above the knee, and went out again between the hamstrings. In its progress, it divided the popliteal artery, each extremity of which shrunk into the adjoining parts, and no hæmorrhage ensued. Mortification was, however, the consequence.

‘ VIII. A Letter from Dr. D. G. Yates, Physician at Bedford, to Dr. Duncan, giving an Account of the good Effects obtained from a Combination of Calomel and Opium in inflam-

inflammatory Diseases; with Observations on the Effects arising from Acetite of Copper, and on some other important Subjects in the Practice of Medicine.'

Dr. Yeats strongly confirms, from his own observation, the good effects of these remedies in inflammatory cases. In the instances where acetite of copper had been accidentally taken, the most uncommon symptoms were rawness of the fauces, and difficult deglutition. A dilatation of the pupil also occurred.

'IX. Remarkable Cases of Convulsions, with some Observations on the Hæmorrhœa Petechialis, or Ptechix sine Febre, communicated to Dr. Duncan, Junior, by Dr. Albers, Physician in Bremen.'

Some singular causes of convulsions are enumerated in the paper before us, particularly intro-susception, both in animals and the human subject. One case, greatly resembling hydrocephalus, was relieved by a discharge of matter from the ear. The case of morbus petechialis is not particularly curious. We remember seeing a stout farmer, from whom the blood may be literally said to have oozed through every pore, even the caruncles of the eyes. No cause could be assigned; and the common remedies succeeded.

'X. History of a singular Case of an extra-uterine Fœtus discharged by the Rectum. By Mr. John Goodsir, Surgeon at Largo.'

Similar cases have already occurred: they are, however, truly 'singular,' as they show the astonishing and persevering powers of nature in removing disease.

'XI. Observations sur la Cataracte. Par M. Monnot, Professeur d'Anatomie et d'Accouchement à Besançon, communicated to Dr. Inglis.'

'Observations on the Cataract. By M. Monnot, Professor of Anatomy and Midwifery at Besançon.'

This paper should certainly have been translated, and greatly abridged; for it contains the history of opinions and operations respecting cataracts, which it is certainly not the object of this publication to preserve. It is not, however, a compilation only. The author adds a mode of operating on what is styled the membranous cataract, or the obfuscation which arises from the inflammation of the capsule after the lens is removed. We shall attempt, in part, the task which the editors have declined, by adding the author's plan.

'This accident may be prevented, if an intelligent and steady operator divides the posterior part of the lens, which escapes, and permits the vitreous humour to occupy the place of the crystalline. This membrane, removed from the focus through which the light is directed, no longer prevents its access.

'To explain the superior advantages of this method to those commonly employed, I shall particularly explain the mode of executing it.

The patient is placed near a window, and the operator before him, on a more elevated seat. The head of the patient rests on the breast of an assistant, who fixes it, by placing one hand on the forehead, and, with the other, raises the upper eye-lid. To check the motions of the organ, the other eye is covered with some compresses, supported by a bandage. The operator draws down the lower lid, without pressing on the organ, and takes, with the other hand, the bistoury from the assistant. He directs the point to the edge of the transparent cornea, and to the middle part, which answers to the lesser angle of the eye. Instead of directing it transversely, from the little to the great angle, he conducts it obliquely, so that the point of the instrument is in a straight line with the angle of the nose. This direction, which should be that of every cutting instrument, renders the wound more regular, and is less troublesome in the execution.

‘When the wound is made on the transparent cornea, and the eye gently pressed, the crystalline breaks the slight connexion which fixed it, and falls upon the cheek. Where the capsule resists, a slender instrument, terminated like a serpent’s tongue, passed by the pupil, and carried over the anterior part of the crystalline, divides it; and this body escapes by the opening.’

To prevent the membranous cataract, he advises, immediately after the extraction of the crystalline, that the same instrument should be directed to the posterior part of the capsule, with which a crucial incision should be made on that part. Immediately the vitreous humour fills the place of the crystalline; and the eye is clear, without a cloud.

The Medical News is not of great importance: it is, in fact, no longer *new*. There is a proper precaution against the application of cold water to the feet, in gout, though the late Dr. Gregory did not fall a sacrifice to this practice, as was some time since publicly asserted.

ART. IX.—*Essays by the Students of the College of Fort William in Bengal. To which are added the Theses pronounced at the public Disputations in the Oriental Languages on the 6th February, 1802. 8vo. Published at Calcutta. 1802.*

THIS publication has excited a train of ideas the most singular and the most interesting. India, in early ages the cradle of Science, the spot where she first reared her head, whence her infant exertions were extended to Egypt, and, in the activity of more mature growth, probably to Greece, in succession to Rome, and to the western extremities of Europe—India, we see, now receives, from these western extremities, pupils to be taught her languages—not to learn, but to communicate, in return, the purest precepts of morality; perhaps, in the end, the most compressive truths of religion; to wean her from cruel and abject superstition, to teach the supposed blameless Brahmin mercy and humanity.

In other views, it affords an interesting spectacle to behold

conquerors intermixing with the conquered, imbibing the spirit of their laws and the peculiar force of their customs—administering justice without shocking their prejudices—imparting to the legal proceedings an equitable arrangement, without infringing on what antiquity has rendered, in their eyes, most sacred. It is obvious that this cannot be done without a knowledge of their languages and their works; and this is one great object of the college at Fort William—a foundation which reflects the highest credit on the person who suggested, and the nation who established, it.

These *primitiæ* of college-studies are truly respectable; and a few copies have, we find, been imported by Mr. Debreth for sale. We have read them with considerable satisfaction; and it is not one of its least sources, that, with every eagerness to acquire the languages of the country, the students seem to possess every honourable view of adding to the happiness and prosperity of the people with whom they are to be connected.

Fashion, which led the authors of no late period to look for virtue and innocence among the savage tribes, who know no law but force, no restraint but inability, whom appetite and passion rule without the controul of reason or reflexion—this supreme arbitress, we say, invested the Brahmin with every virtue under heaven; and, because he did not feed on animals, supposed that purity and innocence divided his heart. They were not aware that the Brahmin was tyrannical, cruel, and superstitious—that his religion inculcated the most horrible and most inhuman practices, which, instead of softening, he enforced with all the rigour of a hierarch. They did not know that the supposed mild and harmless Hindu was cunning and deceitful, with more than Protean wiles and artifices. If these be supposed to constitute only a defensive armour against the rapacity of conquerors—for he has always been the victim—what at first was such, is now become habitual. To detect his artifices, to enforce justice, to combat his deceitful evasions, a knowledge of his language, his laws, and his customs, is essentially necessary; and it is the object of the college to attain these.

The statutes of the college which relate to the Essays before us, are the following:—

‘ STATUTE VI.

‘ Of Public Disputations in the Oriental Languages.

“ Whereas it is necessary, that the students destined to exercise high and important functions in India, should be able to speak the oriental languages with fluency and propriety; it is therefore declared, that public disputations and declamations shall be holden in the oriental languages, at stated times, to be prescribed by the council of the college.”

‘ STATUTE VII.

‘ Of Exercises in English Composition.

“ Every student shall compose one essay or declamation in the English language, during the course of each term.

"The subjects of these essays or declamations shall be proposed by the council of the college." P. iii.

The first position is, that an academical institution in India is advantageous to the natives and to the British nation. On this subject there are three essays by Mr. Martin, Mr. Elliott, and Mr. Bayley. They are light elegant compositions, and show the authors to be equally able and ingenious. We prefer, however, the second. In this essay, the following passage gives us a high opinion of the spirit of the institution, and excites the warmest hopes of its ultimate success.

"In a moral point of view the advantages of an academical institution will be equally conspicuous. Pleasures and amusements, unless restrained within moderate bounds, soon lead to extravagance and licentiousness. Coming into the country at an early age, it can hardly be expected that young men should have any strong or fixed ideas of the truth of their religion; and whatever they may have, are too often obliterated, by a constant intercourse with men, who are, perhaps, as deficient in moral principle as in their knowledge of the true religion. Nor is this all: a very short course of dissipation places them in the power of men, who want not the inclination to render them instrumental in the perpetration of the most dishonest and unworthy actions, to the disgrace of their country and the dishonour of the religion which they profess. As we believe our religion to be infinitely more pure than that of India, and our morality more refined, it is incumbent on us to shew that our actions are not at variance with our ideas; and to evince the truth of that religion by displaying its efficacy on our conduct. The paths of vice hold out so many, and such powerful allurements, that nothing but a firm and solid foundation of religion, integrity and morality can resist their power. It becomes therefore a primary object of the proposed institution, to check in the very beginning, the progress of dissipation and vice; to instill the principles of religion and virtue; to enforce the necessity of order and industry; and to warn the inexperienced of the dangers and snares which await them in their passage through life.

"I cannot omit to observe two circumstances, which will tend very greatly to conciliate to the British government the good will and esteem of the natives of India, and which may be ranked among the principal advantages of this institution.

"The first is, the great patronage which is hereby extended to natives of learning and abilities. India has been long descending by slow degrees into the gulph of barbarism and ignorance, and learning and the arts have been gradually falling into disrepute and obscurity. The ample field which this institution proposes to itself, comprehending the languages, literature, arts, and sciences of all the more polished nations of Asia, will not fail in a few years to assemble the most learned men from all parts, by affording them suitable encouragement. Nor does it end here. The student will come into active life with a taste for eastern literature, and extend that patronage so happily begun; the shoots of science will again spring up and flourish, and the east will regain its once well merited celebrity.

"The other circumstance I had to mention, is the conviction which

will be afforded to the natives of India, of the earnest desire of the supreme government, that they may not be ruled by men, ignorant of the genius of the country and its inhabitants; but by those who, from a regular course of diligence and study, have attained a perfect knowledge of the subject. This will inspire a confidence that the laws will be administered with justice and impartiality; that every respect will be shewn to their usages and customs, and every indulgence to their prejudices; in fine, they will cease to consider themselves as a conquered people, and unite with one soul in a general wish for the permanency and prosperity of the British empire.' p. 30.

The second position is, that the Asiatics are capable of as high a degree of civilization as the Europeans. This is not, we think, very successfully supported: but the essays are highly creditable to the authors—Messrs. Wood, Martin, and Newnham. Though this position is second in order of the theses in the oriental languages, it is the last in the arrangement of the essays. The third position is, that the Hindustanee language is the most generally useful in India. The essays are 'on the best Means of acquiring a Knowledge of the Manners and Customs of the Natives of India;' and the authors, Mr. Hamilton, Mr. Martin, and Mr. Metcalfe. We prefer the third.

The following observations, from Mr. Metcalfe's essay, deserve attention.

' In considering the second head, or the means of acquiring knowledge by attentive observation of the manners as they present themselves to our view, we meet with some obstacles, as our enquiry can scarcely be extended further than Calcutta; but these obstacles will yield to perseverance and attention. We are too apt to speak of all Indians under one indiscriminate character, merely because they are known in Europe by one general name; whereas among their numerous nations, a difference of character may prevail, not inferior to that which marks the nations of Europe. In our enquiry into the habits and usages of India, we must be careful to distinguish the different sects, tribes, and countries. Would it not be ridiculous to group together men so totally dissimilar in religion and disposition, as the bold Rohillah or Patan, and pusillanimous Bengalee? It would be equally so, to conceive every professor of the Hindu religion as professing the same mind or disposition. The vast space of country which now flourishes under the genial influence of British protection, comprehends people of various genius, education, and habits. Some tribes of the inhabitants are open and brave, others the reverse; some are ambitious and impatient of controul, others obedient and tractable; their usages, their religious prejudices, and their established opinions, are all at variance; and an acquaintance with their several doctrines comprehends a very extensive and general knowledge, which can only be acquired by diligent attention, accurate observation, and minute investigation.' p. 85.

' It is in the power of the British to diffuse over the east every blessing which flows from the wisest and most humane policy. Many

of the Indian institutions are contrary to the feelings, and desires of nature; and ignorance and superstition, their chief supports, can never ensure permanent stability. An attempt to crush them might indeed create a spirit of obstinacy to resist every effort of persecution; but whilst we maintain the principle of universal toleration, which has ever marked our progress in this country, and evince to the inhabitants our eagerness to promote their happiness in every instance; it cannot be deemed enthusiastic to prophesy, that the superiority of the Christian religion, and the mildness of the British government, will, in a few generations, induce the intelligent natives to throw off the shackles of their absurd superstitions, and lead them to partake of those advantages which arise from the free scope and due cultivation of the rational powers.' P. 88.

The Hindus, particularly those near the European settlements, begin, it is said, to despise their former superstitions: but we are sorry to perceive that they do not acquire, in return, a dignity of mind, just views of morality, or the purer precepts of religion.

The theses, in the Persian, the Bengalee, and Hindustanee languages, are more strictly on each of the positions stated above; and in the same order. On their excellence we cannot decide; but we are convinced that the abilities of the authors must have been exerted, with particular energy, on what appears to be their chief object.

ART. X.—*Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Vol. V. Parts I. and II, 4to. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

WHEN, in our review of the fourth volume of the Edinburgh Transactions, published in 1798*, we announced that the publication would be annual, 'whether there were sufficient materials for a volume or not,' we suspected some decline in the spirit or activity of the members. The first part, indeed, appeared in 1799; but a long interval elapsed before the second part was published, which reached us only a few weeks since, though dated in 1802. As the first part was small, and neither varied nor peculiarly important in its contents, we waited for the remainder of the volume: that, however, is not even now arrived; and, as the progress is apparently slow, we shall no longer delay noticing those parts which we have received. We shall, as usual, notice the articles in their order.

'I. Investigation of certain Theorems relating to the Figure of the Earth. By John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.'

This is, in many respects, a very valuable paper. Mr. Playfair begins with showing the great uncertainty in the proportion of the polar and equatorial diameters of the earth; and it is no reflexion on him to remark, that, by the late more accurate mensuration of a degree in the northern regions, the proportion, since the publication, is attained with greater accuracy. We forgot to make a memorandum of the more correct proportion: but, if we mistake not, it is about $\frac{1}{12}$. The subject was shortly noticed in our late Appendix, when considering the last volume of Montucla's History of Mathematics.

This is not, however, the only difficulty. The observations made in different regions do not meet in any one point—an inconsistency, in part owing to the imperfection of our instruments, and in part to the vicinity of mountains, and probably the unequal density of the strata of the earth near the surface. Of the effects of these causes, some instances are subjoined.

'While we continue to draw our conclusions, about the figure of the earth, from the measurement of single degrees, there appears to be no way of avoiding, or even of diminishing, the effects of these errors. But if the arches measured are large, and consist each of several degrees, though there should be the same error in determining their celestial amplitudes, the effect of that error, with respect to the magnitude and figure of the earth, will become inconsiderable, being spread out over a greater interval; and it is, therefore, by the comparison of two such arches that the most accurate result is likely to be obtained. But, in pursuing this method, since the arches measured cannot be treated as small quantities, or mere fluxions of the earth's circumference, the calculation must be made by rules quite different from those that have been hitherto employed. These new rules are deduced from the following analysis.' p. 6.

The analysis it is impossible to abridge: but Mr. Playfair adds, that the large arches, measured under the direction of general Roy, are likely to remove the principal difficulties on this subject; and, as more minute accuracy is required, his approximations, in the solutions of the equations, are carried on further.

In the trigonometrical survey, and in one part of our author's analysis, the compression appears to be about $\frac{1}{14}$, nearly double the supposed quantity; and this inconsistency, which remains to be elucidated fully, according to our author's conjectures, is owing to the lighter strata near Greenwich being bounded on the west by the denser lime-stone and granite. This, however, he admits to be merely hypothetical. It certainly must be left for more minute investigation. Other applications of geometrical measurement, to discover the figure of the earth, are subjoined.

'II. Account of certain Phenomena observed in the Air Vault of the Furnaces of the Devon Iron Works; together

with some practical Remarks on the Management of Blast Furnaces. By Mr. Roebuck, in a Letter to Sir James Hall, Bart. Communicated by Sir James Hall.'

Mr. Roebuck is the son of the ingenious Dr. Roebuck, and seems to inherit his father's talents. His paper chiefly relates to a subject of local importance, requiring the plates to enable the reader to comprehend it. The feelings he experienced, during his confinement in condensed air, are curious, but not peculiarly uncommon they are similar to those described by divers. This part we had determined to select; but we shall reserve the space for a communication of more importance.

'I had reason to conjecture, from my own observations on the effects of blowing machinery on blast furnaces, as well as from the knowledge I had acquired from my father Dr. Roebuck, and from my communications with other experienced iron masters, that a great part of the power of such machinery was misapplied in general practice, by throwing air into furnaces with much greater velocity than necessary, and that, if this velocity was, to a certain degree, diminished, the same power, by properly adjusting the blowing machinery, of whatever nature, would be capable of throwing into the furnace a proportionally greater quantity of air. For, "since the quantities of any fluid, issuing through the same aperture, are as the square roots of the pressure;" it follows, that it would require four times the pressure, or power, to expel double the quantity of air through the same aperture, in the same time: but if the area of the aperture was doubled, then the quantity of air expelled by the same power, and in the same time, would be increased in the ratio of the square root of 2 to 1, though its velocity would be diminished exactly in the same proportion. Again: I considered that the quantity and intensity of heat, produced in blast furnaces, and consequently its effects in increasing the produce, might be only in proportion to the quantity of air decomposed in the process of combustion, without regard to its greater velocity; that is to say, whether or not, the same quantity of air was forced, in the same time, into the furnace through a small pipe, or through one of larger dimensions; for, in attending to the process of a common air furnace for remelting of iron, where there is a very large quantity of air admitted through the large areas between the bars, it is well known, that a much greater intensity of heat is produced than takes place in a blast furnace, and yet the air does not enter into the fire through the bars with increased density or great velocity. I therefore thought it probable, that increasing the quantity of air, thrown into the blast furnace in a considerable degree, although the velocity or density might be much less, would have the effect of increasing its heat, and operations, and produce. And as, from the principles above stated, with regard to the machinery, I saw I could greatly increase the quantity of air thrown into the furnace, by enlarging the diameter of the blow-pipe, and regulating the engine accordingly, without being obliged to employ more power, I was anxious to make this experiment.' P. 37.

'From the success of this experiment, so well authenticated, and

continued for several months, I am led to be of opinion, that all blast furnaces, by a proper adjustment of such machinery as they are provided with, might greatly and advantageously increase their produce, by assuming this as a principle, viz. "That with the given power it is rather by a great quantity of air thrown into the furnace, with a moderate velocity, than by a less quantity thrown in with a greater velocity, that the greatest benefit is derived, in the smelting of iron-stones, in order to produce pig-iron." However, it is by experiment alone, perhaps, that we can be enabled to find out the exact relations of power, velocity, and quantity of air requisite to produce a *maximum* of effect.' P. 40.

' III. Experiments on Whinstone and Lava. By Sir James Hall, Bart. F. R. S. and F. A. S. Edin.'

We have anticipated our remarks on this subject, in our examination of Mr. Kirwan's objections in the eight volume of the *Irish Transactions*, noticed in our last volume, p. 391. It is sir James Hall's object to support Dr. Hutton's geological system, by showing that whin-stones are probably the result of fusion, by demonstrating, that what would be vitreous, when cooled rapidly, is of a stony texture, when the cooling is more slow. Mr. Kirwan, on the contrary, has shown that this stony appearance is owing to crystallisation, and a partial decomposition, when it becomes, not stone, but enamel; and this very respectable chemist has explained, in our opinion, very satisfactorily, all the changes observed in sir James Hall's experiments. He is mistaken in saying that Dr. Hutton was the first author who considered that cooling slowly, under the pressure of incumbent strata, would make a difference in the qualities of the lava. Mr. Whitehurst, long before Dr. Hutton, explained the formation of amygdaloids, and toad-stones, in this manner. In the article above referred to, we pointed out the appearance of little cavities, filled with air, in the newly-formed whin-stone after vitrification. We consider this point as decisive of the question. The real distinction of lavas is their affording no air in calcination; and, had sir James Hall tried them in this way, he would have at once decided the dispute; and, from the appearance of bubbles, detected his own error. Dr. Kennedy mentions the whins losing five *per cent.* of volatile matter, while the old lavas lost scarcely any thing. It discovers, also, a strong prepossession not to be convinced of the destruction of the whole hypothesis, by pretending to find crystals of calcareous spar in the whin-stone; the appearance of which our author explains in the following manner—a manner wholly inconsistent with what is most indubitably established by the known laws of affinities.

' Calcareous spar frequently occurs in whinstone, either in veins or in detached nodules, but is never found in lava, and could not exist in a volcanic stream; for heat, in such circumstances, would infallibly

drive off the carbonic acid, and compel the lime to unite with the other component elements of the mass. In whinstone, which Dr. Hutton supposes to have flowed, at some remote period, in crevices of the earth, at a great depth below what was then its surface, the weight and strength of the superincumbent mass of strata has been sufficient to resist the expansion of the carbonic acid, and to constrain it, upon the principle of Papin's digester, to continue in combination with the lime. This compound seems to have entered readily into fusion, along with the whinstone, but to have kept separate from it, as oil separates from water through which it has been diffused, thus giving rise to the spherical form, which the nodules of calcareous spar generally exhibit with more or less regularity.

'This circumstance accounts for an appearance which has misled some of the early observers of our minerals. Many whinstone rocks externally resemble very porous lavas, but when broken are always found to be quite compact internally, and to contain numerous round nodules of calcareous spar. Near the surface, the nodules, being washed out by rain, have left the cavities which have given rise to this deception. The spherical form of the air holes in lavas, and of the nodules of calcareous spar in whins, seems to have been produced by a cause common to both, the mutual repulsion of two fluids intermixed, but not disposed to unite.' p. 67.

The observations on *Ætna*, *Vesuvius*, and the appearance of their lavas, are judicious: but we are much surprised to find the author apparently unacquainted with Spalanzani's Travels. Some parts of his argument might have been enforced by that naturalist's observations. But, whatever becomes of sir James Hall's system respecting whin-stones, the whole would have little effect on Dr. Hutton's wild theory. It is not a mere Plutonic geology, but is connected with the successive destruction and re-production of continents; in reality, with an indefinite duration of the world. One part of the Plutonic system might, indeed, be established, should whin-stones be proved volcanic productions: but it would be a small part only. Granites would be, with greater difficulty, reduced to this class; and, of granite, a great part of the rocks which bind the looser particles of this earth together, consists. To defend the whole is a hopeless labour, as it is totally inconsistent with the general tenour of geological phenomena.

'IV. A chemical Analysis of three Species of Whinstone, and two of Lava. By Robert Kennedy, M. D. F. R. S. and F. A. S. Edin.'

We have already observed that our author has discovered soda in whin-stones. He first analyses the basalt of staffa; and finds, in one hundred parts, forty-eight of flint, sixteen of argil, as much of oxyd of iron, nine of lime, *five of moisture and other volatile matter*. As only ninety-four parts are thus found, six parts were consequently lost. Our author afterwards found five of these; viz. four of soda, and one of muriatic acid: but the

one remaining, with the five parts of volatile matter, are unaccounted for. The whin of Salisbury rock afforded the same ingredients, in nearly the same proportions: but five parts and a half in a hundred were lost. The whin of Calton hill was also, in every respect, similar; and the lava of Catanian *Ætna* did not greatly differ. 0.01 was, however, only unaccounted for: the lava of Santa Venere Piedimonte *Ætna* lost only 2.5 in 100: both contained soda. Soda was also discovered, as might be expected, in some sand-stone rocks.

'XII. Chemical Analysis of an uncommon Species of Zeolite. By Robert Kennedy, M. D. F. R. S. F. A. S. and Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh.'

We step on to this article, to conclude the subject. The crystals of this zeolite seem to be four-sided, and rectangular: the fracture is spicular and irregular. This stone is phosphoric, but one of those which require a slight friction, percussion, or heat, to become luminous. It loses about five *per cent.* in a very strong fire; and, as it was found in the basaltic rock of the castle of Edinburgh, some doubt will be occasioned by this circumstance also, respecting the volcanic nature of the latter. A hundred parts contain 51.5 of silex, 32 of lime; 0.5 of argil, 0.5 of oxyd of iron, 'about' 8.5 of soda, and 5 of carbonic acid and other volatile matter, with some traces of magnesia and muriatic acid.

'The stone which has now been described resembles some of the varieties of tremolite mentioned by Saussure, in the property of giving a phosphoric light by friction. Its specific gravity also is somewhat greater than that of the ordinary kinds of zeolite, as stated by mineralogists. Excepting in these particulars, however, it has the principal characters of a zeolite; for example, in its internal composition, in having been found in a whin rock adhering to prehnite, and in producing a jelly with acids. Tremolites have a higher specific gravity than this stone, are more infusible, and are considerably different in their composition. Besides, such kinds of tremolite as I have examined cannot be decomposed by acids, even when boiling, and must be heated with potash or soda before their component parts can be separated; but the substance in question is completely decomposed by acids, like the greater number of zeolites, in a very few minutes, and without the assistance of heat. For these reasons it appears to me to be a zeolite.' p. 303.

'V. A new Method of resolving cubic Equations. By James Ivory, Esq. Communicated by John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.'

This very ingenious method we find it impossible to abridge. When an annual publication was resolved on, the division of the classes into scientific and philological was no longer admissible; and the different papers must be intermingled without any division—an inconvenience greatly to be regretted. Indeed,

the union of discordant materials, in one volume, is by no means pleasing or convenient. In one society, what entertains and instructs a particular class of the members, is uninteresting to another; and, however connected the societies may be by a common bond of union, the sessions and the publications should be distinct. This is the only proper part of the conduct of the National Institute of France; and the Royal Society of Edinburgh might have learnt this caution, from the decline of a society in their own metropolis; *viz.* that which published the Medical Essays. When enlarged by the addition of members, whose pursuits were less confined—and its publications were of a more general nature—the meetings were soon neglected, and three volumes only of Physical and Medical Essays were filled at distant intervals. This circumstance is within the recollection of many of their present members.—We have been led to this train of reflexions, which applies to the Transactions of Ireland, as well as those of Scotland, by the first article in the second part of the volume; which, whatever be its merits—and they are, indeed, considerable—is scarcely in its proper place, or of its due proportion.

‘VI. Remarks on a mixed Species of Evidence in Matters of History: with an Examination of a new historical Hypothesis, in the *Mémoires pour la Vie de Petrarque*, by the Abbé de Sade. By Alexander Fraser Tytler, Esq. F. R. S. Edin. Judge-Advocate of North Britain.’

Mr. Tytler’s general remarks on historical evidence are peculiarly judicious and interesting. We shall select the introductory part.

‘In matters of historical research, there is a kind of circumstantial evidence which arises from the combination of known or authenticated facts, with critical argument on the import of double passages, of authors, which the reasoner endeavours to interpret, by bringing together, comparing, and making the one illustrate the other; so as to draw from the whole a degree of positive and certain information, which those authenticated facts are not of themselves sufficient to convey, and which those passages, taken separately, are incapable of furnishing. This complex species of evidence, it must be owned, is, with respect to its power of conviction, much inferior to that which arises from the ordinary proofs on which authentic history depends; for example, the testimony of actual witnesses to the facts related; or the positive information of authors, derived from clear and well authenticated records: but, at the same time, as in matters of history we have not always that best kind of evidence on which to found our belief, we are from necessity often compelled to resort to this inferior, circumstantial and analogical species of probation, in order to form to ourselves a rational creed on many matters of doubt, on which the mind is unwilling to rest in absolute uncertainty.

‘This latter species of evidence, too, has its recommendation, from that pleasing exercise which it gives to the reasoning powers: for

there is no mental occupation which demands more ingenuity, if we construct ourselves this artificial fabric of argument, or requires more judgment, if we attempt to analyze and examine its foundations when reared by another. The structure of an hypothesis of our own is a delightful occupation to the mind; and a pleasure, perhaps very little inferior to this, is the critical examination of an hypothesis framed by another. We proceed to either undertaking with a zeal, resembling that which is felt by the adventurer on a voyage of discovery. We persevere in it with an ardour which increases with the difficulties we encounter. Like the adventurer, too, we find our chief reward in the research itself, whatever may be the actual value or real importance of its ultimate object.' p. 119.

The conduct of the historian, in circumstances obscure and doubtful, is illustrated by an examination of the abbé de Sade's hypothesis, respecting the Laura of Petrarch. The abbé attempted to prove that Laura was a married woman, born at Avignon, a daughter of the house of Sade, the mother of a numerous family, and perhaps one of the progenitors of the abbé himself. Mr. Tytler, with an acuteness and discrimination which we wish to have seen employed in a more important inquiry, shows that the arguments of the abbé are weak, suspicious, and unfounded. He traces every part of the hypothesis to its source, and proves it to have no existence but in the author's imagination, and no support but in facts apparently fabricated, and passages of authors inconsistent, or tortured to express a meaning evidently undesigned. It is more probable that Laura was born at Vaucluse, near Avignon; that she died unmarried; that the inconsistent conduct of Petrarch occasioned her much vexation; and that this may have been the cause which prevented their union. With all the refinements of the most ardent passion displayed in the sonnets, Petrarch kept a woman, by whom he had a child. We cannot enlarge on the arguments, but may add, that our author's system is admirably supported, and peculiarly solid and satisfactory.

'VII. Description of an extra-uterine Fœtus. By Mr. Thomas Blizard, F. R. S. Edin. Lecturer on Anatomy and Surgery, and Surgeon to the London Hospital.'

The fœtus, in this case, was in the Fallopian tube; but the great singularity was the rupture of the tube, when the impregnation was of not more than five weeks. Children have attained their full growth in this tube, without its being ruptured. The hæmorrhage occasioned the woman's death.

'VIII. Meteorological Abstract for the Years 1797, 1798, and 1799. Communicated by John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.'

Some little variations in the arrangement of the tables, and the situations of the instruments, are announced, which we need not enlarge on. We may only remark, that the thermometer is

about thirty feet from the ground, and stands often at 33° or 34° , when a slight frost is felt on the surface. In the year 1797, the barometer was from 30.33 in February, to 28.563 in December. The thermometer vibrated from 72.5 to 29.25. The mean temperature of April was 46.51: the mean temperature of the year, 48.04. The rain amounted to 25.360 inches. There were 206 days of wind from the western quarter, and 109 from some point of the east. August was the wettest month. July, September, and October, were also very rainy.

In 1798, the barometer varied from 30.49 inches in February, to 28.424 in January: the thermometer from 75° in July, to 18° in December. The mean temperature of April, 50.51; of the year, 49.28. The rain was 23.855 inches. The wettest months were July, August, and September. January, October, and November, were little inferior. The westerly wind prevailed during 250 days, the easterly 115. In general, the year was mild and open.

In 1799, barometer from 30.37 in December, to 28.525 in November: the thermometer from 76.5 in June, to 18 in December. The mean temperature of April, 49.91; of the whole year, 46.13 only. Rain 25.874 inches: wind westerly 211 days, east 154.

‘IX. A new and universal Solution of Kepler’s Problem. By James Ivory, Esq. Communicated by John Playfair, Professor of Mathematics, and F. R. S. Edin.’

This article will not admit of abridgement.

‘X. Description of some Improvement in the Arms and Accoutrements of Light Cavalry, proposed by the Earl of Ancrum, Colonel of the Mid-Lothian Regiment of Fencible Cavalry, and F. R. S. Edin. to his Excellency Marquis Cornwallis, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, &c. &c. in a Letter to Captain Taylor, Military Secretary to his Excellency.’

The improvement chiefly relates to the carbine; and the whole paper, as it is not reducible to the class of literature or philosophy, is seemingly misplaced.

‘XI. A new Method of expressing the Coefficients of the Development of the Algebraic Formula $(a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \phi)^n$, by means of the Perimeters of two Ellipses, when n denotes the Half of any odd Number; together with an Appendix, containing the Investigation of a Formula for the Rectification of any Arch of an Ellipse. By Mr. William Wallace, Assistant-Teacher of the Mathematics in the Academy of Perth.’

The mode of developement of this formula is explained sufficiently in the title. We find nothing that we can enlarge on.

ART. XL.—*Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth.*
By John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. &c. 8vo. 10s. Boards.
Cadell and Davies. 1802.

WE noticed Dr. Hutton's Theory when it first appeared in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and soon perceived that it was a system hastily taken up from partial views, and would not bear the examination of those to whom Nature, in her more retired walks, was most familiar. Since that time, we have often had occasion to glance at it; and, as geological researches have been lately frequent, no long time has elapsed without noticing, under the guidance of inquirers of different sects, the system, either as a whole, or in detached parts. We have, in general, found the opinions of different geologists to coincide with our own; but we have seen, with some surprise, the most persevering attachment of a few to a doctrine which holds forth slight attractions, and which seems to us to have scarcely any support. Among the authors who still adhere to the Huttonian theory, is Mr. Playfair, a philosopher of no common rank, and highly distinguished also for his abilities as a mathematician. He now takes the field, with no little display of prowess, in favour of Dr. Hutton, and chiefly in opposition to Mr. Kirwan, Dr. Hutton's most able antagonist. We shall examine his powers and his conduct in this contest, but cannot extend the inquiry to any great length; and must add, in our own vindication, that, though we oppose Dr. Hutton, we must not be supposed to follow, implicitly, Mr. Kirwan.

Mr. Playfair begins with giving an abstract of Dr. Hutton's Theory, which he has brought forward very ably—we had almost said artfully; for its defects are carefully concealed; and, where it really coincides with the phenomena, the agreement is pointed out somewhat ostentatiously.

A great part of Dr. Hutton's theory rests on this principle—that continents have existed previous to those at present known, and that these former continents had *their* prototypes. We do not say—because it has occasioned some displeasure—that this series of worlds has no limits; but certainly none are pointed out; and we believe Mr. Playfair will allow, that indefinite and infinite, in philosophical and mathematical disquisitions, are nearly allied. When we attempt to prove that two asymptotes of an hyperbola approach the section infinitely, without touching it, the proof consists only in this—that there is no *definite* period in which a line cannot be drawn between them. On this first point, then, we would make a stand, and allege that there is no evidence for this succession. There is no evidence, from mineralogical observations, that the formation of this world is of a very remote æra; while such observations demonstrate but *one*

deluge overwhelming the earth. Calcareous earth, pudding-stones, &c. are formed, it is said, from the dissolution of organised bodies, or the destruction of former strata. This may be, for a moment, admitted: the rounded masses in the breccia, it is said, imply rolling in the water: 'there must have existed, then, not only a sea, but *continents*,' previous to the formation of the present strata. This we consider as one of the artifices before alluded to. There is no allusion to continents in the proposition, so that there should have been none in the conclusion. Do the facts prove more, than that the stones are rolled by the motion of the water over other stones, and thus worn away? May not this be effected at any depth, where the motion imparted by winds and tides is not lost?—This is afterwards allowed by the author himself, p. 418.—The *continents*, the term for which the argument is adduced, form therefore no part of the proposition. Again—

'Characters of the same import are also found among the argillaceous strata, though perhaps more rarely than among the calcareous or siliceous. Such are the impressions of the leaves and stems of vegetables; also the bodies of fish and amphibious animals, found very often in the different kinds of argillaceous schistus, and in most instances having the figure accurately preserved, but the substance of the animal replaced by clay or pyrites. These are all remains of ancient seas or continents; the latter of which have long since disappeared from the surface of the earth, but have still their memory preserved in those archives, where nature has recorded the revolutions of the globe.' p. 8.

Are *these* 'the remains of ancient seas and continents?' They must be the remains of one only, unless a sea and continent could exist simultaneously in the same spot. But do they prove more, than that accident left a fish on the land, or carried a leaf into the sea. If we examine the spots where these fishes are found—for it will not be contended that the *leaves* are proofs of a previous *sea*—we shall find them exclusively in spots where sea has certainly been, but whence it has receded within a limited period, since no depth of vegetable mould is found; and, often, the remains of what had been a port, within the records of history, have been discovered in the neighbourhood. In this case, we must make an obvious distinction between those successive continents, and the changes within human records, of the sea receding from the land, and again covering it; though, in general, the land greatly gains on the sea, in part probably from a diminution of the aqueous fluid, which appears from the earliest *eras* to have been insensibly taking place, in consequence of the decomposition of the water, and the formation of coral, of which it makes so large a part.

Again—these remains, if they prove more than we have

stated, prove too much. Had the numerous continents arisen from the sea, and been again buried in it, the remains of fishes should have been abundantly found. Human and animal remains should have been as often met with. What is the fact? The figures of leaves are frequently discovered; but in strata where the decomposition of vegetables is obvious at no remote æra: the remains of shells are common; but we know the waters once covered the earth. The *débris* of fishes are rare; those of birds so uncommon, that many doubt the existence of a true ornitholite; and, of animals, not a single vestige is found—for we now speak of the figures impressed on stone, not of the fossil remains merely covered by earth. There cannot be a more decisive argument against the system of Dr. Hutton.

Coal we admit to be of vegetable origin, and it is to be found, we know, in rocks decidedly primæval; but this admission will not avail the ally of Dr. Hutton; for coal is adventitious: it is found in veins near the surface, and in strata below; but the inclination of the strata, their angles with the horizon, the vegetable remains which cover them, point out their source, and show their origin to be of no very remote æra. Sand, and its frequent occurrence in stones most clearly primitive, is adduced, as a proof of the *detritus* of stones of another æra, before the consolidation of the present continent. This, it has been said, is a separate crystallisation of quartz; but what then, replies Mr. Playfair, is gravel? The answer is easy. If sand be not, in every instance, the *detritus* of quartz at an æra not very remote, and conveyed, in its divided state, into the interstices of stones (which we think probable), there is no reason for supposing that it may not be an irregular or an interrupted crystallisation of quartz. Is it very uncommon to see salts crystallise in irregular minute masses? Does not the salt of sea-water freeze in this way? Granite crystallises hastily, but somewhat regularly; yet, on this point, we shall not enlarge, because our ideas of the formation of granite differ from those of many other philosophers. They have been formed in the regions of granite; and we may add, in confirmation of what has been just mentioned, that we have seen this stone in all its varieties, from extreme hardness, and a metallic sound when struck, to that slight degree of cohesion which crumbles on a pressure of the hand. We may probably again have recourse to the fact; but perhaps Dr. Hutton did not know—for he scarcely mentions granite in the first draught of his theory—that, when dug from the earth, it is much softer than after having been some time exposed to the air.

The only other part of the system which we can notice in the present article, indeed its only other very striking feature, is the consolidation of the strata. This is attributed to igneous fusion.

It will not be expected that we can here enter into the controversy between the Vulcanists and Neptunists; it is enough to confine ourselves to the author's arguments. In the first place, he attributes to igneous fusion what igneous fusion will not effect, *viz.* consolidation of the different strata. But, he adds, as barytes is capable of fusion, when the escape of its fixed air is prevented, so may lime-stone. It would, indeed, be incumbent on the supporters of this theory to show, that, in close vessels, carbonated lime will enter into a state of fusion; which they have not done. It is, therefore, enough for us to observe, that fire breaks, rather than assists, the cohesion of lime-stone in our experiments; and, when we examine this earth after its being first brought out of the mine, we find the fixed air in a less proportion, and the earth more friable. Marble has the fixed air in a greater proportion, but is more solid. Has the one, then, been fused with a stronger heat and more compression? We dare not say so, for the latter has often veins of ochry matter in an oxydated state, has often vegetable impressions, and shells with the calcareous polish uninjured. If flint, as the author suspects, be injected by the force of heat into the mass of calcareous earth, it should be found in veins leading to a nucleus; and that nucleus could, in no instance, contain drops of water, frequently traced in nodules of flint. Again — the hardest lime-stone is often detected without any covering, and in the neighbourhood of the sea, where it probably never was covered. Where, then, is the heat to fuse it? Where the compressing force to confine the air?

We must now return to the argument of lavas being devoid of air, while other fossils contain it copiously. This is the case with the oldest lavas dug out of the deepest volcanic quarries. If this be true, and if, as authors have contended, the existence of air in a fossil is the most decisive evidence against its being volcanic, all arguments respecting the action of fire in consolidating strata will be at an end, as almost all fossils contain air. The result of experiments of this kind we have reason, from the characters of their authors, to depend on; and, having quoted Dr. Kennedy in support of the fact, we need not adduce that of any other chemist.

The arguments from the position of the strata, supposed to be at first horizontal, and raised by the effect of a subterraneous fire, are not particularly applicable to Dr. Hutton's system. They have been employed by geologists of different sects; but it has not been always considered that the same appearances would result from the depression of the other end.

Mr. Playfair next proceeds to unstratified bodies, as metallic veins, whin-stones, and granite. These, he thinks, show, in every part, marks of previous fusion; but in every point of his argument Mr. Playfair fails, particularly with respect to granite.

He proves that the latter has been in a state of fluidity; but he fails in showing that this fluidity was from fusion. We are sorry that, from the extent and the minuteness of the argument, we cannot follow him closely.

The third section is on the phenomena common to stratified and unstratified bodies; and this chiefly relates to the agents which produce the *detritus* of the earth, and some appearances observable from the action of rivers, in support of the Huttonian theory. In this part, Mr. Playfair warmly contends against any inference that may be drawn from it, as opposing the Mosaic system. We own, as we have already observed, that, while successive continents to an indefinite extent are supposed to rise, and be again buried, it advances very near to an eternity of the world. This however, it is observed, was not the intention of the author; and we record this part of his doctrine, as we have pointed out the consequences to which it might lead, without an explanation. Yet the Mosaic account is not treated, we think, with sufficient respect; nor does Mr. Playfair seem anxious to reconcile this system with the Mosaic cosmogony. The sacred writings were not designed, he remarks, to teach us astronomy or geology; but they are not, in our opinion, at variance with either; and we are yet to learn the system, *supported by facts*, which contradicts the Mosaic narrative. If a chaos be the union of all the elements, the separation is exactly that which, from their respective natures, must take place: if we look to the geological phenomena of this globe, they lead us to a centre, to this intimate union of the whole.

The notes and illustrations, which form by far the greatest portion of the volume, contain many valuable and important facts. We should have read it with great pleasure, had it not been too much mixed with controversy, and with controversy armed with too sharply-pointed quills. Mr. Kirwan's abilities are generally acknowledged; and he bears his faculties too meekly to justify violent contention.

The subject of the notes are, 1. On calcareous Earth; 2. On the Origin of Coal; 3. On primitive Mountains; 4. *Primary Strata not primitive*; 5. Transportation of the Materials of the Strata; 6. Kirwan's Notion of Precipitation; 7. Compression in the mineral Regions; 8. Sparry Structure of calcareous Petrifications; 9. Petroleum, &c.; 10. Height above the level of the Sea, at which Marks of aqueous Deposition are found; 11. Fracture and Dislocation of the Strata; 12. Elevation and Inflexion of the Strata; 13. Metallic Veins; 14. Whin-stone; 15. On Granite; 16. Rivers and Lakes; 17. Remains of decomposed Rocks; 18. Transportation of Stones, &c.; 19. Transportation of Materials by the Sea; 20. Inequalities of the planetary Motions; 21. Changes in the Apparent level of the Sea; 22. Fossil Bones; 23. Geology of Kirwan and De Luc;

24. System of Buffon ; 25. Figure of the Earth ; 26. Prejudices relating to the Theory of the Earth.

From the titles of these notes, their general tendency will be sufficiently obvious. As Mr. Kirwan has defended himself from the attacks on himself and his opinions, it would not be proper to enlarge on the subject. We shall therefore point out a few passages of some importance, and select some extracts, as a general specimen of the work.

The title of the fourth note requires some illustration. In the usual language of mineralogists, the primitive rocks were those of which the world was supposed originally to consist ; that had undergone no change, as was proved by their not containing the *débris* of any animal. Dr. Hutton disliked this distinction, and admitted of no rocks really primitive, or, if admitted, the term was so strictly limited, as to amount almost to their exclusion. He substituted the word *primary* ; and allowed, that, though they contained fewer animal remains than the others, they were not wholly without such, or without sand, gravel, or other marks of a previous *detritus*. We own that this strikes as a powerful argument in favour of the opinion, that this system extends the age of the globe to an indefinite period. A definition is not, however, the object of contention ; and we would only say, that we do not call any stone, ever found to contain any animal remains, primitive. Granite is so ; for it has never been found to contain such ; and, though sand and gravel are occasionally found among granite, it must be observed, that its own quartz becomes sand by comminution, and that, in many granites, the cohesion is so loose, that the torrents from rain will reduce it, in the gulleys of the mountains, to the state of sand. This change has, within a series of years, taken place under our own eyes to a considerable extent.—The following description of a fracture in a mass of breccia is very singular and striking.

‘ I shall here mention another mark of violent fracture, that has been observed in rocks of breccia or pudding-stone, which, though not of the same kind as the preceding, and of a nature quite peculiar, belongs rather to this place than any other. In rocks of the kind, just mentioned, it sometimes happens, that considerable portions are separated from one another, as if by a mathematical plane, which had cut right across all the quartz pebbles in its way. None of the pebbles is drawn out of its socket, that is, out of the cement that surrounds it, but is divided in two with a very smooth and even fracture. The pebbles, in the instances which I have seen, were of quartz, and other species of primary and much indurated rock.

‘ Lord Webb Seymour and I observed pudding-stone rocks, exhibiting instances of this singular kind of fracture, near Oban, in Argyleshire, about three years ago. The phenomenon was then entirely new to us both ; but I have since met with an instance of the same kind in Saussure's last work. As the fact is of so particular a kind, I shall

state it in his own words : The place was on the sea-shore, near the little town of Alassio, between Nice and Genoa.

“ En passant entre ces blocs de breche, j'admirai quelques-uns d'entr'eux, d'une grandeur considerable, et taillés en cubes, avec la plus parfaite régularité. Il y avoit ceci de remarquable, c'est que l'action de la pesanteur, qui avoit taillé ces cubes en rompant leurs couches, avoit coupé tous les cailloux des breches à fleur de la surface de la pierre, aussi nettement que si c'eût été une masse molle qu'on eût tranchée verticalement avec un rasoir. Cependant parmi ces cailloux, la plupart calcaires, il s'en trouvoit de très durs, de petrosilex, par exemple, même de jade, qui étoient tranchées tout aussi nettement que les autres.”

“ This description is no doubt accurate, though it involves in it something of theory, viz. that the fracture was made by the weight of the stone. This may indeed be true; the operation probably belongs altogether to the surface, and is one with which the powers of the mineral regions are not directly concerned. The phenomenon, however, appears to me, on every supposition, very difficult to explain. In the specimen which I brought from Oban, the smallest pieces of stone are cut in two, as well as the largest. The consolidation and hardness of the mass are very great, and the connection of the different fragments so perfect, that it is no wonder the whole should break as one stone. But still, that the fracture should be so exactly in one plane, and without any shattering, is not a little enigmatical; if it is indeed a fracture, it must be the consequence of an immense impulse, very suddenly communicated.” p. 206.

After noticing the junction of the primary and secondary strata, the position of the former, which is vertical, that of the second, which is horizontal, with the breccia, containing the nodules of the former with the cement of the latter, interposed, Mr. Playfair adds some interesting geological descriptions of the coasts of this island, from his own observations.

“ The most southern junction’ (of the primary and secondary strata) ‘ which we observed is at Torbay, where the ancient schistus which prevails along the coast, from the Land’s End to that point, receives a covering of red horizontal sandstone, the same which composes the greater part of Devonshire. The spot where the immediate contact is visible, is on the shore, a little to the south of Paynton; and one circumstance, which among many others serves to distinguish the different formation of the two kinds of rock, is, that the schistus, which is elevated here at an angle of about 45° , is full of quartz veins, which veins are entirely confined to it, and do not, in as far as we could observe, penetrate into the sandstone, in a single instance. It is probable, that on the north shore of the bay, the same line of junction is visible: we saw it at Babicomb Bay, still more to the northward.

“ From this place, the secondary strata of different kinds prevail without interruption, along the coast of the British Channel, and of the German Ocean, as far as Berwick upon Tweed, and for some miles beyond it. The sea-coast then intersects a primary ridge, the Lammermuir Hills, which traverses Scotland from east to west, unit-

ing, near the centre of the country, with the metalliferous range of lead-hills, and afterwards with the mountains of Galloway. The section which the sea-coast makes of the eastern extremity of this ridge, is highly instructive, from the great disturbance of the primary strata, and the variety of their inflexions. The junction of these strata with the secondary, on the south side, is near the little sea port of Eyemouth, but the immediate contact is not visible.

‘ On the north side of the ridge, the junction is at a point called the Siccar, not far from Dunglass, the seat of sir James Hall, baronet. By being well laid open, and dissected by the working of the sea, the rock here displays the relation between the two orders of strata to great advantage. Dr. Hutton himself has described this junction; *Theory of the Earth*, vol. i. p. 464.

‘ From the point just mentioned, the secondary strata continue as far as Stonehaven, where the southern chain of the Grampian mountains is intersected by the sea-coast. Here a great mass of pudding-stone appears to lie on the primary strata, but their immediate contact has not been observed.

‘ Going along the coast toward the north, the next junctions which we saw were on the shore, one near Gardenston, and another near Cul-len, in Banffshire. The latter is very distinct; it is about a mile to the westward of the rocks called The Three Kings, where a red sandstone, the lower beds of which involve much quartz gravel, lies horizontally upon very regular, upright, and highly indurated strata. Some of these strata are micaceous, and others of the granulated quartz.

‘ This last is, I believe, the most northern junction which has been observed in our island. The western coast furnishes several more, which however are not all visible. The line of separation, between the primary schistus of the Grampians and the sandstone which covers it, is intersected at its western extremity by the Frith of Clyde, not far from Ardencaple in Dunbartonshire. The two kinds of stone can be traced within a few yards of each other, but not to the actual contact: the beds of sandstone nearest the schistus form as usual a breccia, loaded with fragments of the primary rock. The secondary rock, which begins here, continues for about fifty miles south, to Girvan in Ayrshire, where the primary schistus again rises up, but is not seen in contact with the secondary. It extends to the Mull of Galloway and the shores of the Solway Frith.

‘ The Isle of Arran, however, not far distant from this part of the coast, contains a junction at its northern extremity, where secondary strata of limestone lie immediately on a primary micaceous schistus. This is described by Dr. Hutton, and was the first phenomenon of the kind which he had an opportunity of examining. The junction is visible but at one spot, and is not seen so distinctly as in some of the instances just mentioned; but the great quantity of pudding-stone near it, renders it more interesting than it would be otherwise. As the greater part of this little island is surrounded by secondary strata, other junctions might be expected to be visible.

‘ On the coast of England and Wales, from the Solway Frith to the Land's End, though there are several alternations from secondary to primary strata, I know not that any of them have been observed.

At St. Bride's Bay, in Pembrokeshire, the primary and secondary strata are seen very near their junction; but the precise line I believe is not visible. The coal-pits in the secondary strata, approach here within a few hundred yards of the primary. The secondary strata which commence at this place, occupy both sides of the Bristol Channel, and meet the Cornish schistus, which extends across the north of Devonshire to the Quantock Hills, in a line that may be looked for on the sea-coast, somewhere between Watchett and Minehead.' p. 212.

Many other facts, of value to the geologist, are added; and the observations 'on the elevation and inflection of the strata' are curious. Mr. Playfair thinks that they strongly support the theory of Dr. Hutton: we have little doubt that they may be explained more satisfactorily on the commonly received system.

The note on 'metallic veins' contains likewise some curious facts: those which relate to the native iron will receive some further attention on a future occasion. The author's anxiety to discover marks of fusion in native metals is not always successful. The observations 'on veins' we think curious; and must own that they stand equally in the way of the Neptunist and Vulcanist, and are not easily explained.

The notes on whin-stone and granite contain also a variety of facts of importance, the observations of a truly penetrating geologist. The compressed fusion of the former is laboured with more zeal than success; but the descriptions of veined and stratified granites, independent of the conclusion, demand our warm commendations.

The observations on rivers are excellent; and our author has shown, very clearly, that they have worn their own course, that they have formed their own beds. They have also formed their embouchures, in their passage to the sea: but Mr. Playfair has not noticed one circumstance with sufficient clearness; which is, that this passage is advantageously chosen at some aperture. The water falling always on the lower ground, reaches the cleft in those parts where it is less abrupt, or in a spot where the hills had before receded. The embouchure of many rivers shows that the hills have not been wholly worn away by the current, but that the latter has taken advantage of some previous opening.

The length of our article obliges us to omit many notes which contain curious and interesting observations, for which we must refer to the work; but we have found, in these, no facts which peculiarly enforce the theory of Dr. Hutton. They are either irrelevant to it, or are equally explicable on the other system. The twentieth note, designed to prove that the inequalities of the planetary motions show neither commencement nor any probable termination, as they compensate each other, might have been omitted without disadvantage to the work, as it only

tends to bring more forward what, we think, a very disadvantageous feature in the whole. The contests of the geologist are of little comparative importance to the unhinging one great principle of revealed religion. This however, Mr. Playfair contends, is not a consequence; but we fear that many will draw the conclusion which Mr. Kirwan and others have drawn. It is too obvious to be mistaken.

The note on the figure of the earth is peculiarly curious, and more strictly in Mr. Playfair's department, than mineralogical disquisitions. Its object is to show, that, either on the supposition of a chaotic fluidity or igneous fusion, it would not assume its present oblate figure, or at least that the proportion of the polar and equatorial diameters would not be as they now appear. This proportion is however, in our author's opinion, more easily reconcilable to Dr. Hutton's system. We cannot, at present, engage in the disquisition, but shall probably have an opportunity of returning to it.

We must now leave this very interesting volume, which, however we may differ from Mr. Playfair in his conclusions, we think one of the most curious and intelligent works that we have lately seen. One antagonist will claim our notice in another number, which may occasion our reverting to it.

ART. XII.—*Remarks on "Michaelis's Introduction to the New Testament. Vols. III, IV." translated by the Rev. Herbert Marsh, and augmented with Notes. By way of Caution to Students in Divinity. Second Edition. With a Preface and Notes in Reply to Mr. Marsh. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. White. 1802.*

ART. XIII.—*An Illustration of the Hypothesis proposed in the Dissertation on the Origin and Composition of our three first canonical Gospels. With a Preface, and an Appendix, containing miscellaneous Matters. The Whole being a Rejoinder to the anonymous Author of the Remarks on Michaelis and his Commentator. By Herbert Marsh, B.D. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Rivingtons. 1803.*

TO the former of these pamphlets, announced as a second edition, a new preface is prefixed; which begins with declaring, that the remarks republished in it, though thrown out in haste, but not without due consideration, were occasioned by a strong impression that remained in the author's mind, after an attentive perusal of Michaelis's work as published by Mr. Marsh, of its tendency, in several particulars, to lower the credit of the sacred writings, and consequently to weaken the foundation of our faith, by raising unnecessary doubts, and magnifying little difficulties.

The Remarks, we are told, were intended merely to draw the observation of the public to this circumstance, and to forewarn the inexperienced against giving too implicit credit, on the score of the merit and learning of the book, to every opinion there advanced. The author had his own reasons for publishing them without a name; one of which was, to show that they were meant to stand, or fall, by their own weight, and to be left to the unbiassed judgement of the reader, without any prejudice, for or against them, derived from the person of the writer. In doing this, he did not, as he professes, conceive that he could give reasonable cause of offence to any man, with whatever freedom he might speak of the opinions in question, so long as he treated the authors with proper respect; and he even trusted that Mr. Marsh himself would be ready to do justice both to his motives and his manner of proceeding. The subjects in question, it is added, taken only as matters of learning, ought to be open to every man's conception, much more as they affect the value and credit of the sacred writings, which Mr. Marsh must allow us to watch over with extreme jealousy. The Remarks, we are told, have in a great measure answered their end, in drawing the attention of others to the subject; and, that done, the author is not very solicitous concerning the further fate of any expressions or reasonings of his own. But he professes himself sorry to say, if he may speak his opinion freely, that Mr. Marsh has, in his Reply, very much departed from the character of a liberal-minded scholar.

Thus much, as being of a general nature, we have judged it proper to recapitulate, that our readers may be prepared for the renewal of this dispute. But, before we proceed to particulars, it will be expedient to interpose some remarks of our own, the grounds of which are material to the controversy, and the mode of conducting it.

As, then, the remarker states that his publication was not without due consideration, and proceeded from a strong impression, after an attentive perusal of his antagonist's work, of its tendency, in several particulars, to lower the credit of the sacred writings, we must admit that such a conviction, if well founded, would be a sufficient ground 'by way of caution to students in divinity:' but the caution, we conceive, would have been more fitly placed, as a corollary in the last page, than as an alarm in the first: for, so standing, it not only has the semblance of a *petitio principii*, rather than the result of a discussion, but is of kin to the ordinary expedient—*Give a dog an ill name, and hang him.*

In respect to the remarker's suppression of his name, and for which he had his 'own reasons,'—as he has avowed but one, we can say nothing of the rest. If, however, that one reason weighed

with him, as he states, we must reject the information which accompanied the pamphlet on its first appearance—that its author was the *bishop of Oxford*—as being altogether incompatible with that open ingenuousness of nature by which his lordship is so eminently distinguished, and which is utterly irreconcilable with his letting out the secret, that so good a reason had determined him to keep. As to the charge which the remarker has '*freely expressed*,' in reference to Mr. Marsh, of his having very much departed from the character of a liberal-minded scholar, we leave it, with the rest, for Mr. Marsh himself to repel.

'My anonymous adversary' (says that gentleman) 'has republished (not reprinted) his Remarks, to which he has now prefixed a short preface, and annexed seventy pages of notes, by way of reply to my answer. Sixty of these pages relate, or are *intended* to relate, to the hypothesis on the origin and composition of the three first canonical Gospels. To this subject therefore, as before, my principal attention must be directed: and, in order to preserve unity of design, whatever observations it may be necessary to make, either on the remaining ten pages of notes, or on those among the sixty, which relate not to the hypothesis, they shall be separated from the main body of the work and placed in an appendix.' P. iii.

Having given this general idea of his plan, Mr. Marsh thus proceeds to his defence:—

'The greatest part of his preface contains either personal reflections on *me*, or relates to what he supposes to have been personal reflections on *him*. These are matters, about which readers in general care very little; they are concerned about the subjects in dispute, and not about the persons of the disputants. Besides, whatever personal affronts my adversary may have shewn to me, it is wholly impossible, that I should have shewn any personal affronts to *him*. When I wrote my answer to his Remarks, I wrote in perfect ignorance of the person of the author. He had refused, as he still refuses, to put his name to his work; and though report *now* ascribes it to a particular person, yet that report had not reached my ears, nor I believe the ears of any man in Cambridge, till some time after my answer had been published. But if the *person* of the author was wholly unknown to me, it is manifest, that no *personal* affront could have been offered him. Even now I have no authority to assert, that the report is true. The author himself has not sanctioned it: for he still remains anonymous in his reply. And as to *internal* evidence, it is strongly *against* the report. When *any* writer makes an attack upon another, and yet conceals himself from public view, he betrays either a want of courage or a want of generosity: and it would be strange indeed, if *that* man were anonymous, who ought on *two* accounts to acknowledge his name and character, when he writes on subjects of *divinity*.

'But it may be said, that, though I cannot have been guilty of any personal affront to my adversary, I still may have offended my readers. To *them* therefore I am in duty bound to offer some observations, in order to exculpate myself from the very heavy charge, which my ad-

versary has brought against me, that of having written without a regard even to "decency of manners*." This is a *relative* expression: and the situation of the parties must be considered, before we can form a proper estimate. Manners, which would be indecorous in one case, may be perfectly decorous in another. If I were jostled by a stranger in the dark, he would hardly expect, that I should treat him with as much ceremony, as I would shew to a gentleman, who civilly greeted me at court. Or, if a man entered my room in disguise, and, on being asked who he was, replied "I do not chuse to tell you," he could have no reason to complain, if I talked to him in a different tone from that, which I should have used, had he said, for instance, "Sir, I am the bishop of ———." In like manner, when I wrote my answer to an adversary, who refused to acknowledge his name and character, it was no departure from the rules of propriety and decorum to adopt sometimes a tone, which I would avoid in addressing myself to a man, whose name and character I knew, and knew to be respectable. For even where the merit of a work is not sufficient of *itself* to command respect, a regard for the character or the dignity of the author will frequently curb that freedom of expression, which a mere regard for his work would abundantly justify. If then my anonymous adversary is really a man of great importance, and expected therefore to find in my answer all that deference and submission, which are paid to dignity of office, he should have given me due information of that dignity. But he left me to judge, merely from the merit of his pamphlet, of the portion of respect which was due to its author, and yet he is now indignant, that, instead of following the only rule which I had, I did not follow a rule, which he never gave me. Nor is the inconsistency, which he has displayed on this occasion, inferior to the unreasonableness of his demands. For the very freedoms, of which he complains, he himself has taken in the utmost latitude: and in the same proportion, as he is unwilling to allow a privilege to his opponent, he is tenacious of that privilege himself†. But surely I have a right to be in-

* He does not say so in direct terms: but he declares it at least indirectly, when he says (pref. p. 4, 5) that an author who expressed himself "with civility and decency of manners, had a right to a return of the same." This clearly implies that, in the opinion of my adversary, I did *not* make a return of the same. And, to put the matter out of doubt, he immediately adds, that I "make full use of the privilege assumed."

† In his preface, p. 4, "he is sorry to say, if he may speak his opinion freely, that Mr. M. has in his Reply very much departed from the character of a liberal-minded scholar, which with great sincerity he meant to attribute to him:" which however means nothing more than, that Mr. M. has very much departed from that tone of submission which he (though anonymous) with great seriousness expected from him. Again in pref. p. 7, "I lament that I shall have occasion here to call in question the fidelity and correctness of Mr. M. for which I was inclined to give him full credit at the beginning." The latter clause I suppose means, that at the beginning of our controversy, before I had taken liberties with him, he was not inclined to charge me in express terms with want of fidelity, &c.: but if he turns to p. 28. of his Remarks, which were the overture of our controversy, he will find the very same charge, united moreover with the charge of fabrication of authorities. It is true, that he there likewise is "concerned to say," as in the present instances he "laments," and is "sorry to say:" but such lamentations rather aggravate than mend the matter. However, he does not always adopt this condoling style: he sometimes rises higher. For instance, pref. p. 6, "I hope to shew that Mr. M. in his letters, is as deficient in argument, as he is abundant in anger." Again in pref. p. 7, alluding to two passages where I bla-

dulged at least in an *equal* degree, since my adversary enjoys the advantage of having his name and character concealed, while my name and character are exposed to public view.' P. iii.

On the precautionary design of the remarker's publication, Mr. Marsh asks—

'—Whether it was *necessary* for my adversary's cause, that he should declare in his *title-page* and advertise in the *daily papers*, that he wrote against me "by way of caution to students in divinity?" His main object was, or at least *ought* to have been, to *confute* such opinions as he himself deemed erroneous: and his readers would of course reject those opinions, in proportion as they saw them confuted. More than this he had no right to expect: for where more is effected, it is the result of prejudice, and not of argument. But surely none of his arguments could be strengthened by his motto on the title-page. In the next place then I ask, whether that motto does not tend to do me an injury in my professional character; an injury therefore which might be accompanied with losses beyond the power of my adversary to repair? That it really *has* such a tendency I think can hardly admit a doubt. When an author, whatever be his profession, is brought forward in a public advertisement, (which was literally the case,) as a person, whose writings in that profession ought to be received with *caution*, his professional character will unavoidably suffer from it. My adversary was indeed anonymous, and therefore what he said derived no authority from any *name*, as he himself boasts in his preface. But no man would suspect that even an anonymous writer, however secure he might think himself in his retreat, would presume to caution the world against any set of propositions, unless he had sifted them to the bottom, and proved them to be false. *Truth* never can be an object of *caution*. Little therefore would the hundreds, and the thousands, who read his motto in the public papers, suspect, that he was cautioning them against a set of propositions, without confuting, or even *attempting* to confute the arguments by which they were established*.

served he had borrowed from other writers, he says, "It is a pitiful insinuation;" and then turning, with a rhetorical apostrophe, from the subject of discourse to the person of his antagonist, he exclaims, "To *him* therefore I have no more to say, except to intreat him to return to a better temper." Whether this rhetorical apostrophe will prove my intemperance, or *his own*, must be left to the decision of those, who are better judges than either of us. — These passages I have selected from his preface, where, like his "caution" on the title-page, he has announced his charges, long before he could enter on any proofs of them. To inquire therefore at present into the validity of his proofs, which, if he has any, can only come under consideration when the opportunity offers, would be foreign to the subject now before us. The above-quoted passages (to which I could add some more from his notes, as well as his preface) are introduced only as specimens of that "civility and decency of manners," of which my adversary boasts, and which he seriously recommends to his opponent.

* He declaimed against my hypothesis through almost one half of his pamphlet: but about the ground on which it rested he never once inquired, as I very clearly shewed in the fourth letter of my Answer, where I proved that the truth of the hypothesis was no more affected, than if he had never written. And of this letter he has taken no notice in his Reply, an omission, which I recommend to the attention of those gentlemen, who think that he has defended himself "step by step." On the contrary, he himself admits in his Reply, p. 55, that he "undertook only to prove that caution was requisite in reading" the book. Now caution is requisite in reading every book.

He urges indeed in vindication of himself, "that it is not *his* fault, if there are thousands who make their conclusion, without attending to the reasons." Did he imagine then, that every one, who read his advertisement, would purchase his book, and examine whether his reasons, as he calls them, were sufficient to establish the charge; a book, which has hung so heavy on hand, that the unsold copies were sufficiently numerous to serve for a *second* edition? He hardly imagined any such thing. From those, who *do* read his book, and read it with knowledge and impartiality, I have nothing to fear: but the mischief is, that not one in a thousand, who see it advertised, will take the trouble to open it.——What *right* my adversary possessed to do me this injury, I know not. It is a *kind* of injury, which betrays not only a consciousness of weakness in argument, but a disposition devoid of generosity: it is a kind of injury, to which a truly liberal scholar, however severe he may be in exposing ignorance or deception, will never have recourse. My adversary indeed, who, in spite of my remonstrances, has again put the motto on his title-page, says it is only a caution and not an anathema. It is not indeed that species of anathema, which goes to life or limb: but if he has gone as far as he could, I am not at all obliged to him for not having gone further. He urges also in his defence, that it is nothing more than a common practice and the use of a common right to draw the attention of the public to the subject of a work by a *suitable* advertisement. This right however has its limits: and not *every* description, however suitable it may be to the contents of a book, is therefore fit to be put on the title-page, and advertised in the daily papers. In this very preface some things will be presently exposed, of which I myself should be very sorry to be guilty. But would it be proper therefore, would it be even decent, to call the attention of the public to them by what my adversary terms a *suitable* advertisement? In his own case he would *feel* the impropriety, and would be ready enough to allow that the right should be exercised with *caution*.——Let it be remembered then, that, if I have treated my adversary with more severity than he expected, he himself is to blame. I am neither impatient nor angry, as he fondly imagines, that an exception should be taken against my favourite hypothesis: for I am not quite so weak as to suppose, that a theological work, which is novel in its kind, would pass without objections. It was not his attack, but his *mode* of attack; it was that inquisitorial anathematizing spirit, which excited, and justly excited, indignation*. But whatever cause I may

The position therefore, in the abstract, can never stand in need of a proof: and when it is applied to any particular case, the falsity of that case must be previously established, or there is a manifest absurdity in cautioning against it. My adversary's solemn appeal therefore (pref. p. 5) in vindication of his right to publish cautions, provided he assigns reasons for them, is nugatory. No reason can be assigned for publishing cautions against what is true. Let him first prove, that the hypothesis is false: and then let him caution as much as he pleases.

* The same spirit is manifested in various parts of his Reply. He begins in his very preface to throw out ungrounded insinuations, of a similar kind, against his opponent: for speaking of the sacred writings he says, "which Mr. M: must allow us to watch over with extreme jealousy." There is something very insidious in the words "must allow:" for they imply an unwillingness on my part to admit the authenticity of the sacred writings. To say nothing of my defence of the authenticity of the Pentateuch, of which perhaps he has never heard, I will quote the following passage relative to the Gospels, which are the objects of our present inquiry. "The more minutely

have had for displeasure, and whatever liberties I may have taken with my anonymous adversary, I hope, that I have in no instance said more, than the nature of the case either warranted or required.' P. vi.

From the satisfactory replies of Mr. Marsh to the preceding charges, our readers will expect him to refute the rest with equal ability: nor will they be disappointed; for the same critical acumen and manly spirit, which must ever make the sneaking subterfuges of cunning contemptible, will be found to pervade the whole. There is, however, one topic which we must not pass over in silence, since it implies so much of moral turpitude, as must render any one, capable of it, deserving the severest censure. Mr. Marsh thus adverts to it:—

'I am charged with having been guilty of "*a pitiful insinuation*" for the sake of lowering my antagonist. I am challenged to bring a proof of the accusation, that my adversary borrowed, from another quarter, the greater part of the learning, which his pamphlet exhibits in p. 19, on the meaning of *παράδοξον* in St. Luke's preface. In reference to this accusation my adversary says, that I have brought against him a charge "*incapable of proof*"; he says, I "*cannot know*" and therefore "*cannot prove*" from what source he has borrowed his materials; and in another place, alluding to the practice of using copies instead of originals, he exclaims with great emphasis, "*It is not my practice I assure him.*" On the present occasion, therefore, there are three points, which I have to prove. First, that my adversary did borrow, from another quarter, the greater part of the learning which his pamphlet exhibits on the meaning of *παράδοξον*. The truth of the accusation being established, I must in the next place endeavour to prove, that there is nothing pitiful in it, but on the contrary, that the accusation was made with as much propriety, as truth. This shall be done by shewing, secondly, that he affected originality; and thirdly, that he made an unfair use of his borrowed materials.' P. 9.

The sagacity with which Mr. Marsh has developed his proofs, and the force of his conclusion, must, we conceive, turn his

we examine, the stronger will be our conviction, not only that they are productions of the apostolic age, but that they are the genuine works of those, whose names they bear." This passage at least must have been known to my adversary: for it is contained in the answer to which he was writing a reply. But if he knew that such were my sentiments, how could he reconcile it to his conscience to make use of expressions, which intimated, that I was of a different opinion? — I will give only one more instance, though I could produce several. Speaking of the discourses of Christ, which, according to my hypothesis, had been committed to writing before our canonical Gospels were composed, but which, according to my adversary, had been delivered only by word, he says, p. 99, "My meaning is that the discourses of Christ (and I trust that he does not mean to deny this prototype, or that it was unwritten till after our Saviour's death) were impressed on their minds, &c." Here the insinuation, "*I trust that he does not mean to deny this prototype,*" that is, the discourses of Christ, betrays real malice: the parenthesis, which the statement of his hypothesis did not at all require, being introduced with no other view than that of saying something ill-natured, and gratifying a low revenge. It betrays likewise as much folly as malevolence. My whole hypothesis, as he himself must know, presupposes the reality of those discourses. If they had never been delivered by Christ, how could I have made an hypothesis relative to their being recorded by the evangelists?

adversary pale, and raise a blush—if the power of blushing be not lost—in the cheek of his abettor.

What relates to the illustration of the hypothesis at large, will be considered in our next number.

ART. XIV.—*The Mineralogy of Derbyshire: with a Description of the most interesting Mines in the North of England, in Scotland, and in Wales; and an Analysis of Mr. Williams's Work, intitled "The Mineral Kingdom." Subjoined is a Glossary of the Terms and Phrases used by Miners in Derbyshire. By John Mawe. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Phillips. 1802.*

THE observation may appear singular, but it is true, that respect for our author has led us to delay the consideration of the present work. In reality, it was our design to urge very strongly an attention to the subject of mineralogy, to bring forward at one view what has been done in regard to this branch of science on the continent, and to point out how remiss the philosophers of this nation have been in prosecuting inquiries of this nature. Circumstances, which we cannot rule, have prevented the full effects of our intention; but, when we combine the information contained in various numbers of our journal published at no great distance from the present—when these offer what has been done in other countries, and what should not have been neglected in this—we trust that the consequence we wished to draw will not be overlooked.

‘Freyberg and Schemnitz, the present theatres of mineralogical knowledge, had beginnings; is it not to be regretted that no institution for such information is established in this kingdom, the riches of whose mines have so long been celebrated?’

‘Students attend the mineralogical lectures at Freyberg and Schemnitz from all parts of the world, and they are as much famed for the study of mineralogy, as Rome was for the fine arts.’ P. vi.

Our author was applied to by a Spanish gentleman to make surveys of the mines; and our author thinks, that, ‘to ascertain a correct statement of the geology and mines of Derbyshire, is a work worthy of the patronage of a prince who enjoys so great a share of the precious metals produced in South America.’ Our author knows, apparently, little of the political state of Spain and South America. Every natural philosopher will be grateful to him, whatever may be the opinion or conduct of the king of both the Indies, who, we suspect, thinks only of receiving the product of the mines, respecting the nature of which he is supposed to be so anxious.

After a short account of what have been styled the wonders of the Peak, which, if irrelevant to the principal subject, do not

long detain him, our author describes the general appearance and succession of the strata. This account we cannot abridge; and, in part, it depends on the plate to render the description easily intelligible: this, however, is clear and satisfactory. Even in the Appennines of England, all the strata are alluvial: in those of coal and iron, the watery origin is particularly so. With respect to iron, we shall transcribe our author's prophecy. We fear the confirmation is more distant than he suspects; and even of the present state, the account is, we think, too flattering.

'The great improvement which the iron manufactories of this country have received by charring or coaking the coal, now frequently adopted, gives reason to hope that they will soon rival those of Sweden and Russia. The English iron, twenty years ago, scarcely deserved the name, as it could not be worked into any article of fineness; but such is the improvement, that we now have but small demand for foreign iron.

'It is not an easy matter to determine the extent of this improvement, as iron works are so considerably increasing all over the kingdom; and at some distant period we probably may possess our mines of coal when the forests of the northern powers may perhaps be consumed: such is the possibility of affairs; nor is it extremely improbable but [*that*] this country may at some future period export her iron to the nations that half a century ago exclusively supplied us.

'Our iron bridges are a species of architecture of which this empire alone can boast. Iron in its various states is so applicable to the use of man, that it would be difficult to form limits to its application; and I am credibly informed that the demand daily increases. We have a few works in this kingdom in which charcoal is used in the making of iron; the iron thus produced is equal to the best Swedish, and probably we soon shall procure from it as fine steel.

'Coal frequently emits while burning a liquid bituminous matter; and schistus is frequently so penetrated with asphalt as to burn until the inflammable matter is volatilized. In this country pieces of coal may be got very large, weighing more than three or four hundred pounds. Veins of sulphate of iron frequently occur; and in two or three instances lead ore has been found in it. When the sulphate of iron has appeared in abundance, and the situation convenient, copperas works have been established.' P. 17.

The descriptions of the lime-stone strata are peculiarly valuable; and the lime-stone of the Peak forest, which is compact and sonorous, the fracture of a scaly white, contains the principal veins—*viz.* those of galena, zinc, ochres, fluors, barytes, &c. The fluors are evidently formed in the cavities of the lime-stone, from depositions and crystallisations, in consequence of the access of water loaded with various, and often discordant, ingredients. What are called variegated marbles are generally veins; and we have often seen the most beautiful veins from the dullest and most unpromising masses. The

toad-stone we shall again examine, and, at present, select the following note, which, we think, strongly supports Werner's theory of the formation of veins from above, noticed in our last Appendix.

“ It is worthy of observation, that the veins are poorer, in general, the deeper they are worked; which may serve to support the opinion that veins are not formed deeper than the crust of the earth; but that remains speculative at present, as does the manner in which they are filled, more especially when we know some of them are worked under an immense stratum, that does not even bear any kind of vein. Veins, although they appear at the surface, yet they are seldom rich until they get a considerable depth, and where the stratum forms a rock of the greatest solidity. The almost continual attendant on large veins of ore, of every description, is a considerable quantity of water, and scarce is any good mine worked that does not suffer inconvenience from it.” P. 43.

The description of the mines to the west of Castleton is full and perspicuous. The account of the adits, to clear the mines of water, is peculiarly interesting. They are works of prodigious extent, sometimes four miles in length. One of the most considerable is at Wriksworth, two miles long; but the mine is now below its level; and, in that respect, it is useless. It works, however, one of the largest cotton-mills in the kingdom, and has the advantage of not being subject to considerable increase or diminution. A low level, in the lime-stone, lays a great course of the country dry; all the waters falling into it, probably from the numerous clefts and caverns in lime-stone for a considerable distance.

From our author's description of the toad-stone, no argument can be fairly derived respecting its origin. Faujas de St. Fond, who, during his travels in this country, saw volcanoes in every mountain, resigned the opinion of the toad-stone being lava, from the account of a miner, who found some veins of galena passing through it. Our author's description of this fact is somewhat different.

“ I went into a mine called Dirtlow, about a mile east of Castleton, where it is said that the vein of lead ore migrates into cat dirt, or toad-stone; and indeed the mine itself took its name from this cat dirt. In a shaft, on the left of the road going to Bradwell, which proceeds from a large rake vein, I went down about 40 fathom. One side of the vein consisted of what the miners called *channel*, *cat dirt*, or *toadstone*; and a part of the vein was full of that substance. I cut out some pieces myself, and directed others to be cut, all which I took with me. Upon examination, this substance was of a brownish green colour, interspersed with green earth, soft, and porous. It was by no means so hard as the generality of limestone, and appeared on the contrary to be in a state of decomposition. It effervesced strongly with acids, and on putting a piece in a heated crucible, I immediately perceived a

strong smell of sulphur. In the dark it emitted a blue flame, and burnt to a dirty red. On applying it to the tongue, it was caustic, and greedily absorbed moisture.

‘It seemed to me to be a question, whether this substance be not a limestone, strongly impregnated with pyrites, which are in a decomposing state; the green earthy matter I suspect to be chlorite.’ P. 66.

The description of the fluors, and the manner of working them, is interesting, but admits no analysis. They are undoubtedly the most beautiful productions of the mineral world. The other minerals offer nothing particularly interesting or new, except the elastic bitumen, the mineral caoutchouc, of which we shall transcribe the description.

‘It is generally found between the stratum of schistus and the limestone, rarely in small cavities adhering to the gangart, and sometimes containing lead ore, fluor, &c. When first detached the taste is very styptic, as if blended with decomposed pyrites. It varies in colour from the blackish or greenish brown to the light red brown, and is easily compressed; but sometimes the same piece is less elastic in one part than in another. On burning it the smell is rather pleasant.

‘A piece of the elastic bitumen, of a reddish brown colour, now before me, contains nodules of indurated shining black bitumen, resembling jet. This kind is very rare.

‘Another variety, the only piece I have seen, is in a marine shell, in a piece of limestone.

‘The elastic bitumen of a dull red, and transparent, in crystallized fluor, extremely rare.

‘A variety, yet more scarce, but less elastic, appears to be composed of filaments, and has a singular acid taste. The characteristics are very different from any other sort; and might probably, if investigated, account for the origin of this substance. On cutting, and in other circumstances, it resembles soft cawk, or old bark from a tanyard.

‘Indurated bitumen, appearing like jet, in amorphous masses, and globules of a shining black, but sometimes liver-coloured. This kind is electric when rubbed; and is sometimes found in barytes.

‘Elastic bitumen with asphalt, containing lead ore. The same in long filaments, almost as fine as wire.’ P. 92.

The lead ores are next described particularly; and a short account of the Ecton copper-mine, though not strictly within the limits of Derbyshire, is added. No zinc in a metallic state has, in our author’s opinion, been found in the county.

The description of the surface of Derbyshire follows, which leads the author chiefly to speak of the lime-stone, and its use as a manure. The last subject is yet imperfectly understood. The opinion, however, of its attracting carbon, and conveying it to vegetables, is not originally Dr. Darwin’s. It was published in this journal many years before the appearance of Dr. Darwin’s work. The description of the toad-stone we shall transcribe.

The limestone stratum is found frequently divided by the toad-stone, which I shall now notice. It forms the surface in various parts of the county, beginning in the neighbourhood of Matlock, and dividing the limestone for a considerable distance near Buxton, and particularly at Wormhill; in that neighbourhood, it is of considerable extent, uneven, and rocky, but by no means so much so as the preceding stratum. This substance is singularly acted upon by the atmosphere, and puts on such a variety of appearances and difference of characters, as to render it difficult to know it in its various stages of decomposition; in some places it appears like basalt, or rather what is called whinstone; abounding with hornblende, and in it are found jasper and chalcedony. At a small distance not exceeding 20 yards, it migrates into a variety of amygdaloid, some dark green and hard, others ochre yellow, with globules of green earth; and is as soft as clay.

It is very probable this substance was at some early period equally hard; but from being so differently exposed to the action of the atmosphere, is in some places covered with vegetable earth, moss, &c. and in other places it may receive the filtrated water from the limestone stratum, which perhaps may, in some degree, be the cause of its various appearances.

It is not considered as a stratum that admits of water filtrating through it, though for a small depth it is penetrated by it; springs often appear on its surface. To give an exact account of the variety of appearances this substance takes in the same stratum, would be too extensive for a work like this, neither is it to be supposed every place is mentioned, where it and the preceding strata make their appearance. P. 127.

Among the mines north of Derbyshire, we may particularly mention that of black-lead, which may be said to supply all Europe with pencils. It is situated on the summit of a granite mountain, high and difficult of access. The wad, for so it is improperly called, lies in small cavities, and forms an irregular kind of pipe vein, attended by ochreous matter, calcareous spar, quartz, and more generally by a greenish, scaly, soft, micaceous earth, somewhat like a species of serpentine. It is worked every three years, and then produces enough for even the extensive demands of Europe. It is, in the interval, carefully watched, and a house is built over it.

Our author proceeds to Moffat, to Lead-hills, to Tyndrum, and Strontian, returning by Collendon to Stirling and Edinburgh. The vast lead-mine of Susanmah, at Lead-hills, consists of a rake-vein, fourteen feet wide, of solid ore, and is deservedly the admiration of travelers. The mines, in this part of the kingdom, are generally known, and have often been described. At Strontian, he could procure none of the earth which bears its name.

From Edinburgh, our author visits the mines at Alston, and others in the north of England; but his journey offers nothing very interesting; nor, in the tour from Glasgow to Staffs, is

any thing of importance added to the descriptions of former travelers. The supposed volcanic appearances on the top of Berigonium, are properly attributed to the effects of the fires made as signals.

Some other mines are described with little order. The salt-mine of Northwick has been often mentioned by travelers. The country consists of grit and clay, and the rock is found in veins of clay, which are gradually mixed with it, till the whole becomes a solid mass, who is worked at the expense of about two shillings per ton, and drawn up by a fire-engine of no very considerable powers, equal only to three horses.

The account of the Parrys copper-mine, in Anglesea, and other mines in Wales, contains nothing particularly new. The mill-stones found near Conway are mentioned; and these we formerly noticed in our review of the Transactions of the Society of Arts. We now return to them, to add the remarks which our own observation has furnished. They are undoubtedly masses of chert with sharp edges, and some rounded flints, or whins, interspersed. They appear to us, however, inferior to the French burr, though they are said to be more lasting; and some millers have, we know, exchanged their burrs for them. They are certainly good *succedanea*.

An abstract of Mr. Williams's work, entitled *The Mineral Kingdom*, is added. It is certainly a confused wordy performance, and a judicious abstract is highly useful. It was published in 1789, and occurs in the first volume of our new arrangement.

A glossary of the technical terms used by miners concludes the work.

ART. XV. — *General View of the Agriculture of the North Riding of Yorkshire. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By John Tuke, Land-Surveyor. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Nicol.*

IF the more important business of mankind is to look at home, to survey their own country, to inquire into the improvements it will admit, to examine and multiply its resources, the labours of the Board of Agriculture, in this series of statistical surveys, demand particular regard. We have lately been led away to other objects, by causes of no great importance to the reader; and return to this subject with satisfaction. What adds to the pleasure with which we survey these minuter details, is, that the plan is now extended to Ireland—a country more exclusively our own, or rather 'one and the same.' This neighbouring island, now united to us, has lately claimed the attention it has always merited, but imperfectly received.

Its mines, its fisheries, its pastures, will now be examined with care; and we mean, in our next volume, to proceed with these reports, to which we shall turn with particular attention; for, though so nearly connected with us, the ground is scarcely trodden: it is a country very imperfectly known.

The northern third of the vast county of York, corrupted from *thirthing* to *riding*, is denominated from its position. It resembles, in some degree, an acute-angled triangle, whose southern point is York: the east and west ridings form the sides which include the acute angle; the German Ocean and the county of Durham that opposed to it. From York, to the north west, a fertile vale extends to the banks of the Tees, which divides Durham from Yorkshire, separating the western from the eastern Morelands. These constitute the prominent features of the county, and are the sources of its principal rivers. From the latter, rises the Ure, which is increased by a stream, comparatively diminutive, *viz.* the Ouse, and becomes deprived of its name, though the larger river, and previously augmented by the Swale, which rises from the north-eastern side of the West Morelands, and runs through the plain which divides the higher districts. From the East Morelands, numerous streams rise, which add to the Derwent, from one of which it receives its name. The district extends in length eighty-three miles, and in breadth forty-seven, containing, in the whole, somewhat more than two thousand square miles, or 1,311,187 acres, of which nearly 450,000 are uncultivated. The mean heat of the year, near the centre of the north riding, was $46^{\circ} 9$, very nearly that of April: the mean height of the barometer, 29.6. The Morelands are of grit-stone. A small district, of unequal breadth, along the coast from Scarborough to Worsall, on the Tees, is clay: the vale between the Morelands an excellent gravelly loam. The minerals are of alum, with some thin seams of indifferent coal. Lead and copper are supposed to be in the county; and adventurers are now working in the search. Slate, marl, free-stone, and marble, are also among the productions of this part of the county. The rivers skirt the riding, instead of passing through it; so that navigable communications are rare. The Swale, the only river which passes through this district, is shallow and rapid.

About one third of the county is possessed by yeomanry: the rest is divided into estates of different sizes, one of which amounts to 18,000*l.* *per annum*. This is, however, a single instance: *nihil simile vel secundum*. The riding is decorated with numerous seats, and is the residence of many noble and respectable families. The tenures are mostly freehold, with some instances of copyhold; and leases for a long term, or for lives, particularly on the church lands. The farm-houses are irregular, crowded, and inconvenient. The labourers fre-

quently sleep in wainscoted beds, near the fire. Farms are from 40 and 50, to 500*l. per annum*: the rent, perhaps, from fifteen to thirty shillings *per acre*. Tithes are gradually declining, in consequence of purchase in the lay lands, and commutation in inclosures. The poor-rates are inconsiderable—leases not common, though estates seldom exchange their tenants. The usual terms of leases are enumerated.

The implements of tillage are not very peculiar: but the description cannot easily be abridged, nor understood, without the plates. The plough is styled the Dutch: it is a short, light, swing plough, well adapted to this district. Drills are not frequent: but winnowing and threshing machines are common.

Much land has been inclosed in the riding; and, were the obstacles removed, it is supposed that no commons would remain.

On the subject of arable land, our author disapproves of the usual practice of the district respecting 'dead' or 'whole summer fallows;' and, though we do not fully coincide in opinion with him, we shall select some of his observations,

* No crop whatever, leaves the land mellow and in finer order for wheat, than well cleaned potatoes, when the land has been previously well manured; and what is remarkable, such land is generally more productive than any other: some millers assert, that the wheat thus grown, yields more flower than what follows a summer fallow, or any other crop. This practice, on a small scale, is common in the north-riding.

It is a well known fact, that land which produces a luxuriant crop one year, will generally produce a greater the next year, than land of equal quality, and in an equal state of cultivation, the crop on which, by some casual circumstance in the season, seed, or otherwise, has been injured; it should therefore seem, that land is more fertilized by a large crop than a poor one. This increased fertility most probably arises from the shade of the crop, which may cause the air beneath to become stagnant, and a considerable putrefaction to take place, augmented perhaps by the additional quantity of roots and stubble remaining in the land, the produce of the preceding large crop. Be this, however, as it may, certain it is that land always turns up more mellow, and is in finer order, after a large crop than a poor one; it therefore follows, that if the land can be sown with a smothering fallow crop, or such a crop as will admit it to be frequently stirred with a plough, or hoed so as to destroy the pernicious weeds, and at the same time perfectly to shade and cover the ground, that it must be more profitable to the farmer, not only on account of the present profit of the crop, but also on account of the additional manure produced, and more favourable state of the ground for the succeeding crop.

The use of summer fallows is to destroy the weeds; but if the above facts and reasoning be true, which there is every reason to believe them to be, the exposure of the soil to the action of the sun during the summer, tends to exhale and destroy the productive powers of it, rather than add to them; or, at best, but prevents an additional de-

struction of its fertility, by destroying the growth of useless vegetables, that would exhaust it; but from itself adds nothing to it.' p. 105.

The particular management of crops, usually cultivated, is a subject too miscellaneous to admit of any abstract: but the account is full and distinct. Among crops not usually cultivated, the ruta бага is mentioned: but it is not frequent; and this turnip appears not to be a favourite with those who have sown it. Woad is cultivated but by one farmer: the cultivation of flax has declined: that of tobacco has been checked by financial authority. Vetches and lentils are rarely sown as a crop. Mustard is sown in considerable quantities, and sold as Durham mustard, since it is prepared in the same manner.

Though the north riding is a dairy district, the grass lands are greatly neglected, except in the dales of the Western Morelands. Artificial grasses, sown so as to continue a pasture for some time, are not sufficiently attended to. Hay-harvest and feeding are particularly described. Corn, as in all the northern district, is ripened after it is cut, by the action of the frost. Gardens and orchards are not extensive. Woodlands are rare; and wood is estimated to cover little more than twenty-five thousand acres: but the hedge-rows are, in general, well planted. The supply, however, is scanty, in comparison of the former state of the riding, when the Morelands were, as is supposed, a forest. The management of woodlands, and the remarks on planting, appear very judicious.

Wastes and their improvement, and the improvement of waste land, are particularly described; but are of local importance only. One great source of improvement, by draining, is either little practised in the north riding, or practised injudiciously. Under-draining has been lately attempted, and is becoming more frequent. On the subject of paring and burning, we shall select our author's observations. We own that we do not so greatly approve of this practice as Mr. Tuke.

The opinions, both of landlord and tenant, respecting paring and burning, are very various and contradictory, in this country, as well as in most other parts of the kingdom: some asserting, that it is a most profitable improvement on old coarse grass-land, and injurious in no instance; while others, with equal confidence, maintain the opinion, that the practice is most destructive in every instance. In all probability, both parties may be partially right, the merit or demerit depending on the management and application; and the ultimate injury or benefit to the land, on the course of crops, and the mode of cultivation pursued. Where paring and burning induces the farmer to crop without mercy, as is too frequently witnessed, there it is most destructive, ages being required to renovate the fertility of exhausted ground; but the same would be required, were a system, equally destructive, pursued on any other land; consequently the blame is not in the practice, but in the avarice of the cultivator. Where the husbandry that suc-

ceeds paring and burning is judicious, no mode of improvement can be compared with it; for it is certain to produce great crops of turnips and grain, and these are certain means of future fertility in the hands of a judicious farmer. Frequent, however, as this husbandry is, and widely as it is diffused through the kingdom, the principles of it are little understood any where; and attentive experiments have every where been wanting, sufficiently varied, to ascertain the amount of its merit.

' This mode of breaking up coarse rough turf, is practised in every part of the north riding, but more frequently on the east side than on the west: it is performed with a "paring spade," which a man thrusts forward with his thighs, by the exertion of his loins, and which cuts the sods about one foot in breadth, and three feet in length: it is generally thought best to pare as thin as the nature of the turf will allow, so as that it may be clean cut up; but a rough spongy surface, admits and requires a thicker sod than where the herbage is finer. If the weather is so unsettled after the paring, that the sods do not get dry when lying upon the ground, women and children are employed to set them on edge, to expedite their drying; after which they are put into heaps, about the size of a small hay-cock, care being taken to lay them light and open within, but to cover close on the outside, to retain the heat, and prevent too rapid combustion.

' Paring and burning is generally thought not to answer so well upon strong clay soils, as upon such as are less tenacious.' p. 225.

Our author's annotators, in general, seem to approve of this practice; and one of them adds a remark worthy attention, that turf should be burnt to a state of charcoal only, not of ashes. Lime is the principal manure: but turf or peat ashes, and composts consisting of the shoveling of the roads, with lime, are employed. Sea wrack, and sea sand, are said to be useful, particularly in the clayey district. Marl, and the manure procured by folding sheep, is not employed. Weeding corn is common: but cutting the thistles in the hedges, to check the propagation of this injurious weed, is neglected. Watering is also unaccountably uncommon. A practice peculiar to this district, of watering upland grounds by artificial rills; and another, common in the east riding, where water is very difficultly procured, of obtaining the same advantage by artificial ponds; are particularly described.

The cattle of the north riding are the short-horned; and the Tees water-bull is a strong handsome animal, very advantageously constructed. Several plates, representing cattle of different kinds, illustrate this subject. In the eastern part of the district, oxen are much employed in drawing. The Tees water-cows are now in repute, as milch cows in this metropolis. The Tees water-sheep are large, coarse-boned, and slow feeders, with dry harsh fleeces: but the breed is improved, by crossing with the Dishley and Northumberland rams. The particular management of sheep is well described. The horses are

chiefly adapted for draught: but, by mixing the racing blood, the horses, in the southern parts of the riding, are become too light of bone. The strongest and best horses are bred on the clayey district, that is, the north-east part of the north riding. The following remarks, on the '*Exportation of Horses*,' were to us new:—

'The horses which are sold for the London market, if for the carriage, are chiefly bay geldings, with but little white on their legs and faces: those which have much white, with chesnut, roan, and other unusually coloured horses and mares, generally do not bear an equal price in the London market, but with other slight and undersized horses, are more sought after by foreigners, and eagerly purchased by them for exportation; or are exported by people of this country, who carry them to the foreign markets, and ultimately obtain a price equal to that obtained for those sold at home: by these means, the exportation, contrary to an usually received, but ill-founded opinion, has a strong tendency to reduce the price of those horses which are calculated for the home market; and since as many fillies as colts are naturally bred, and one-third of the colts at least, will either have too much white for the home market, or be of some other colour than that which is fashionable at the time, if the breeder had not a market for those, which appear to be two-thirds at least of all he unavoidably breeds, he would be compelled to put such a price upon the one-third which happened to suit the home market, or variable taste of the moment, as would pay for the other two-thirds; which last would either be unsaleable, or fetch very inadequate prices. The consequence naturally flowing from this would be, that the price of horses used at home, would be far greater than at present, when a foreign demand procures to the breeder, nearly as good a price for the horses that would otherwise be useless and unsaleable, as for those which are valued at home.'

P. 277.

The remarks on pigs, rabbits, bees, &c. are not sufficiently interesting to detain us.

The rural economy of the county we cannot detail; nor is it of general importance. The political economy, as it affects agriculture, is more extensively interesting. The turnpike roads are improving: but the tolls are not adequate to the repair, partly owing to the greater expense of labour, and the difficulty of procuring materials; but, in a great degree, to the mail running duty free, and lessening the number of other coaches, and the practice of posting. The complaint is, we believe, general: but the latter cause has not been adverted to; and, as a general one, we doubt its operation. The bridges are excellent: but one canal only exists, and that is from York to Stillington; and in 1798 it was not half finished.

Whitby, Scarborough, Cleaveland port, and Malton, are the chief *emporium* of commerce, which, however, is trifling. The exports are chiefly agricultural produce. Some ships go from the two first to the Baltic, to bring home the productions of its

shores; and Whitby employs about ten vessels in the whale fisheries.

At Whitby and Scarborough are manufactories of sail-cloth and cordage. Alum is manufactured in large quantities; and four thousand tons are annually shipped from the former port only. The other manufactures are trifling; so that this may be truly styled an agricultural district.

The obstacles to improvement do not materially differ from those which impede the prosperity of other countries. The author is an enemy to the tithe-laws: but '*his non est locus.*' The miscellaneous observations, and the means of improvement, offer nothing very generally interesting.—On the whole, we cannot conclude without expressing our opinion that this is one of the most able and intelligent county surveys that we have yet seen.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS.

ART. 16.—*Buonaparte; or, the Free-Booter. A Drama, in three Acts. By John Scott Ripon, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Highley. 1803.*

Buonaparte starts from the French coasts with his armament of three hundred thousand men: 'tis night; and he endeavours to go to sleep in his cabin; but the ghosts of those he has murdered rise before him, and prevent him. With an equal mixture of passion and consternation, he rises, stabs his first lieutenant, and fights with his captain, who also falls in the combat. The scene changes to an English man-of-war clearing away for action—the captain harangues his men:—

'He has now put to sea with perhaps 300 000 troops, destined for the conquest of England!! A few hours hence your clemency will be called forth, to snatch from the waves those poor wretches, who, deluded by his promises, have attempted to invade us.—They fight for rapine and for plunder—we fight for our country, our wives and children!—Choose, then, whether you will wear the chains of Gallie slavery, or preserve those honours which our ancestors have bequeathed to us, which they purchased with their blood, and devised in tail to their heirs.—Whether shall we choose to have it recorded in the annals of time, that in 1803, England was attempted to be invaded with an immense force, by the combined armies and fleets of France, Holland, and Italy, that the brave English achieving miracles, defeated, burnt, sunk, and took the whole fleet, and did not leave a single vessel to bear the tidings back to France.—Or would you rather have it

said by posterity : Till the year 1803, the English arms were dreaded by the whole world, but in that very year they shamefully deserted their flag, and suffered a base Corsican, whom they had formerly driven before them, to take their country for spoil, and in one day ruin the monuments of glory which their bravery had been raising for two thousand years.'— P. 10.

Not having any documents of what occurred in England two thousand years ago, we are not exactly certain of the bravery and battles here referred to; and should have liked to have seen some explanation in a subjoined note, if the writer would not have found it too much trouble. It is of more consequence, however, for us to know (as this drama is, it seems, prophetic), that, in the engagement, Massena is killed by the side of Buonaparte, his fleet almost entirely destroyed by the English; and that, of his boasted armament of 300,000 men, not more than 50 000 make good their landing, among whom is the first consul himself. Their reconnoitring parties are attacked by the old women and boys of the villages they pass through—one of these old women killing not less than fifty Frenchmen with her own hands. Meanwhile, Buonaparte musters the remnant of his army, engages the English, whose number we are not informed of, and falls beneath the attack of a young officer.

'D—— of ——'. And was it you, my young officer, who performed this gallant action?

'Officer. It was, my lord Duke; but I did not think that the high blood of the emperor of the Gauls would sleep on a sudden so quietly; the fire of Buonaparte so soon be extinguished; but there he lies, as low, abject, and poor, as any slave that he has murdered.

'D—— of ——'. I hoped for this honour, but I am not less rejoiced that a young officer has been so fortunate. Our loss does not exceed a few hundreds, while of the enemy, there are forty thousand slain. This it is to invade England, and this to encounter Englishmen. The terror of Europe has fallen by a stripling's hand, and England is yet free. (*Takes the officer by the hand.*) Come, my brave hero, I will present you to your king: you shall receive the thanks of the nation for your conduct:—while each of you, my brave soldiers, and the widows and children of those who fell, shall be presented with a rich gold medal to perpetuate the victory; you will bequeath them to your descendants, and posterity shall glory in saying, My grandsire fought in that glorious day. Let us now depart, and offer thanks to heaven that the day is ours, and England still is free. [*curtain falls.*]

P. 32.

ART. 17.—*An Address to the People of Great Britain; Observations on the late Negotiation between this Country and France; and an Account of Bonaparte's Project for the Invasion of England in Concert with a certain great Potentate.* By John Corry. 12mo. 1s. Crosby and Co.

The certain great potentate here referred to is neither the czar, the emperor, nor the king of Prussia: it is, it seems, the devil, or, as he is here termed, the prince of the power of the air; concerning a conference between whom and the first consul of France our author has

been troubled with a dream, which he here loyally communicates for the benefit of his countrymen, and to put the ministry upon their guard against an alliance which they may not otherwise be aware of. To speak the truth, if the plot be no deeper laid, or more dextrously involved, than that before us, no great mischief could ensue; and, in such case, how frequently soever the present writer may be afflicted with dreaming of the devil, he need not trouble himself to divulge his visions any further. As to the other parts of the pamphlet, we see nothing amiss. The author certainly has the praise of having meant well; and we have no doubt that the tract contains all the merit he was capable of giving it.

ART. 18.—*Alfred's Address to the Ladies of England.* 12mo. 6d. Ginger. 1803.

'Various' (says Alfred) 'are the modes in which female influence over man may be rendered useful to the state. Does any man shrink from serving his country in the field? let female scorn drive the coward from society! — The brave alone should bask in the smile of beauty.' p. 4.

But this is not all: the ladies are here marshalled into rank and file: they are divided into the three grand cohorts of those possessing wealth, title, and personal attractions; and every thing is to be put in requisition for the benefit of the country. The wealthy are to contribute their riches, the titled their honours, and the pretty women their charms.

'Let all these qualifications be employed in the service of your country; exert the influence you possess in the neighbourhood of your country-seats, to promote the new levies. Few will be found to refuse a cockade tendered by the arm of beauty. Let those of superior rank win by affability of advice; and of superior fortune, by diffusing its superfluity. Let books be immediately opened to receive the subscriptions of the women of Britain!' p. 9.

That *those of superior rank* should become *affable*, we think a maxim of universal recommendation, and suitable to all places as well as times; and, that *those of superior fortune* should *diffuse their superfluity*, we can never object to, and far less at the present period, than at any other. But we trust that England will never sink so far beneath the scale of her own native prowess and *manhood*, as to render it necessary that the women should stimulate the men into the field against the common enemy. The moment of this humiliation must be the moment of her destruction.

ART. 19.—*An Address to the Richmond Volunteers, assembled in the Parish Church of Richmond, in Surry, on Monday, August 29, and on Friday, September 2, 1803, to take the Oath of Allegiance.* By Thomas Wakefield, B. A. &c. Printed by Request. 8vo. 6d. Hurst.

This is a plain and seasonable explanation of the solemn nature of an oath in general, and especially of the express oath about to be taken upon the occasion referred to; and the preacher passes, with great per-

tinence and propriety, from the consideration of the nature of a sacred oath, to an admonition against the use of such as are profane, which are, indeed,—

‘—abhorrent to every feeling of sensibility and virtue; and are not only in direct repugnance to all our acknowledgements of the existence and attributes of God, but likewise to every idea even of common sense. For although the vice of profane swearing be so fearfully wicked as to stand aloof from other vices for its peculiar, and as it were personal insult to the Majesty of heaven; yet it stands distinguished from them too, for being a vice to which human sagacity has never been able to assign a motive of temptation in the human constitution; and, therefore, for being a vice, which, when practised with any thought at all, must be practised for the sake merely of its wickedness. Considerations, sufficient, no doubt, to inspire every man of sense and seriousness with both horror and contempt of it.’ p. 9.

ART. 20.—*Invasion Defeated. By the Author of the State of Things for 1803.* 12mo. 3d. Hatchard. 1803.

This patriotic harangue is divided into *three* leading heads, and each of these *three* leading heads into *three* subaltern particulars, with all the arithmetical accuracy of *The Rule of Three Direct*.

The address is, nevertheless, far more spirited than we have commonly found addresses thus quaintly enchained in the trammels of the same numerical boundaries; and, having at length worked his way through their labyrinth, the writer abruptly exclaims—

‘It is done—already the danger is perceived—the means are embodied—and the motives are felt. Five hundred thousand freemen in arms, have sworn to their king and to each other, that by God’s help, British honor shall not be insulted—British chastity shall not be violated—British property shall not be plundered—British liberty shall not be destroyed. In aid of such a combination, thus voluntarily formed, and virtuously directed, *all* must bear a part. It is the cause of all; and honor, duty, interest demand that it should engage the hands, the hearts, and voices of all.

‘I call upon the aged, whom bodily infirmities unfit for active service, to support that loyal armament which they cannot join; to replenish its funds, animate its spirit, and thus to contribute what yet remains of their exhausted powers, to the defence of their country.

‘I call upon those, who, by the sanctity of their order, the peculiarity of their tenets, or by any other legalized singularities, are exempted from personal service, to do every thing which their avocations and their principles will allow, on behalf of that government, whose tenderness to their condition or prejudices in this arduous crisis, gives it a new claim to their veneration and support.

‘I call upon that sex, to whose sufferings we owe our natural existence, and to whose exertions we have not unfrequently owed our national preservation, to consider, how much it is in their power, under God, to do, in this hour of awful extremity. They are wives, they are mothers, they are daughters, they are sisters, they are *women*,—a name, which only implies weakness, as weakness implies tenderness,

sensibility, and a wakeful sympathy with those who suffer. Their courage, fidelity, and patriotism find vouchers in every page of our history. Let them act in this crisis, as they have acted in every other; let them employ their commanding influence over the other sex, and those services which are compatible with their own, for the great object of common defence, and their country will ask — will need no more.' P. 18.

This pamphlet we understand to be the production of Mr. Owen, one of the chaplains to the bishop of London.

ART. 21.—*A friendly Address to the Volunteers of Great-Britain.* 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1803.

The subject of this friendly address to the volunteers is the necessity of *implicit obedience* to the commands of their officers and superiors; and it is probable, that, upon some few occasions, an address upon this subject may have been necessary: we cordially unite with our author in his concluding sentence:—

' And, finally, may you, once more, receive that high honor, a *vote of thanks* from a British parliament, at a time when *circumstances* will give it a *tenfold share both of lustre and value*—when the period of your service shall have been *meritoriously* and *prosperously* concluded!' P. 18.

RELIGION.

ART. 22.—*A Sermon preached at the archidiaconal Visitations of the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Northumberland, held May 17th, 18th, 19th, and 20th, 1803; and published at their Request. By Robert Thorp, D.D. &c.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

A serious and judicious address from an archdeacon to his clergy, in which he expatiates on the necessity of attention to their peculiar character, and to their doctrine, as 'delivered in the Scriptures, and committed to them in the articles, liturgy, and homilies, of our church.' Due distinction is made between 'the Christian faith enforced by Christian motives,' and that 'system of morality, as it is too often treated by modern writers, independant of the will of God.' The clergy are, therefore, properly exhorted 'never to separate doctrine from morality, nor omit to inculcate those sublime truths which we receive on the authority of divine revelation.' At the same time, they are guarded against those errors which those are supposed to adopt who claim to themselves the title of evangelical preachers.

ART. 23.—*A Sermon preached at the Anniversary Meeting of the Sons of the Clergy, in the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, on Thursday, May 6, 1802. By George Law, M. A. &c.* 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

The excellence of the Christian religion and Christian morality is shown in the superiority of the charitable institutions of Christianity to those of any other religion. If this charitable disposition be deserv-

ing, as it undoubtedly is, of the utmost encouragement, where can it find more deserving objects than those for whom the preacher pleads in this discourse? The little that the offspring of many clergymen can derive from the effects of their parents, left at their decease, is too well attested by numberless instances, and the state of the incomes of a great part of the inferior clergy. That the laity should, in return for the communication of spiritual things, impart some of their temporal things, is assuredly a modest request; and, in the manner that it was put by the preacher, the case could not fail of exciting the compassion and the benevolence of the hearers.

ART. 24.—*A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of St. Nicholas, in Deptford, on Monday, the 6th of June, 1803, before the Honourable Corporation of Trinity Brethren. By the Rev. Gerrard Andrewes, A.M. &c. 4to. 1s. Hatchard. 1803.*

This sermon is printed by desire, and at the expense, of the elder brethren of the Trinity-house. Without this desire, the author declares that he would not have obtruded it on the public, 'being convinced that a discourse may be heard to advantage from the pulpit which is not adapted to the closet;' and, in this conviction, he has our fullest concurrence.

ART. 25.—*Good Effects of an united Trust in the Arm of Flesh and Arm of the Lord, a Sermon, preached at Cuxton, Kent, July 31, 1803. By the Rev. Charles Moore, M. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.*

The union recommended by the preacher is at all times desirable: but, as the preacher deprecates criticism, and informs us that it was composed 'as a plain exhortation addressed to a plain country congregation,' we must inform him that the public would have sustained no loss if he had reserved it for the use of the plain country congregations in his neighbourhood.

ART. 26.—*Reflections on the Resurrection and Ascension of Christ; and of the probable Consequences of a Public Exhibition of his Ascension; which some think necessary to the Credibility of the Fact. By John Bigland. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Williams. 1803.*

The facts of the resurrection and ascension of our Saviour baffle all the attacks of infidelity. Infidels pretend, however, to be displeased with the mode in which they were performed; and would have had them exhibited before the assembled multitudes at Jerusalem. The answer to such cavils is obvious. If the facts be true, he by whose power they were actually performed knew in what manner his purpose might be best accomplished, and the deepest conviction of their truth be impressed on mankind. Still it may give much pleasing instruction to contemplate the effects of the mode adopted by Providence, and to contrast it with the probable effects of that mode which seems wiser to the adversaries of Revelation. This is done in a very judicious and satisfactory manner, in the work before us. The state of the world, at the time of

the resurrection, is brought before our view; the general plan of Providence is examined and illustrated; the two events are shown to correspond with it; and we have the amplest evidence, not only that the facts recorded took place in the manner described, but that, as we have already observed, this manner was best adapted to the establishment of the truth of these important facts, and their impression upon the human mind.

ART. 27.—*The Christian Hero; or, the Union of Piety and Patriotism enforced; a Sermon, preached in the Chapel of the Foundling-Hospital, July 31st, 1803: by the Rev. John Hewlett, B. D. &c. Published at the Request of the General Committee.* 4to, 1s. Johnson. 1803.

Since our enemies are not at peace with us, it is inferred that our ways do not please the Lord; and we are exhorted to act in such a manner that our ways may please the Lord, and consequently that our enemies may be at peace with us. An examination into our past conduct will be the first step necessary; and the nature and necessity of it are pointed out with much spirit and patriotism.

ART. 28.—*The Duty of Britons, at the present awful Crisis of their Country. A Sermon, preached August 7, 1803, by John Overton, A. M. &c.* 8vo. 1s. Mawman.

This duty is pointed out in rather a prolix discourse. The patriotism of the preacher is manifest; and the substance of his exhortations may be seen in the subjoined extract, in which every individual will find something to apply to himself.

‘ We must be valiant against sin; valiant in prayer; cheerfully contribute our pecuniary and personal aid; and, in general, must each of us, according to our various talents and opportunities, do our utmost for their advantage. The wicked must reform, the righteous must intercede, the rich must contribute, the wise must deliberate, and the strong must fight. Our purses and our persons, our hearts, heads, and hands, all our faculties and all our energies must be exerted in their cause.’ P. 27.

ART. 29.—*The Sacred Mirror; or, compendious View of Scripture History: containing a faithful Narration of all the principal Events recorded in the Old and New Testaments, from the Creation of the World to the Death of St. Paul. With a Continuation, from that Period to the final Destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans. Designed for the mental Improvement of Youth, and particularly adapted to the Use of Schools. By the Rev. Thomas Smith.* 12mo. 4s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.

This work, intended for youth, wants the plainness requisite in such a design. Many things are introduced not suited to their capacity; and sufficient attention is not paid to the language. As an abridgement of Scripture-history, and giving the chronology of the Bible, it may be usefully put into the hands of those who have quitted school, and who may from this work derive both entertainment and instruction.

ART. 30.—*A Discourse in Defence of the Country, delivered in the Parish Church of Clewer, the County of Berks, on Sunday, August the 7th, and before the Troops in Garrison, at Windsor, on Sunday, August 14, 1803. By the Rev. M. H. Luscombe, A.B. &c. Published by Request. 12mo. 3d. Hatchard. 1803.*

The patriotism of the orator prevents us from exercising the severity of criticism on his discourse.

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 31.—*Three Letters on medical Subjects: addressed to the Reverend Gilbert Ford, Ormskirk, Lancashire. Containing 1. An Account of the Effects of an Aloetic Medicine in the Gout and other chronical Complaints. 2. A Practice which has been successful in the individual Prevention of the late Epidemics. 3. An Account of the sedative Properties of the granulated Preparation of Tin, in some Affections of the Mind. By John Ford, M.D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. White. 1803.*

The first and second of these letters relate to an aloetic medicine, recommended for obstinate costiveness, for gout, and designed to guard against the contagion of fever. The preparation is a secret: but, as its excellencies are asserted to depend on the fineness of the powder, on its being carefully sheathed, and rendered soluble in the fluids, it may be easily understood. The third letter is on the effects of granulated tin. It is said to have a sedative power, acting as an opiate, in many cases of nervous irritability. By its weight, also, it is supposed to carry off, more effectually than any other medicine, accumulations of phlegm in the stomach, indurated mucus, and other obstructing matter from the bowels. The author gives it in circumstances of peculiar delicacy, and thinks it perfectly safe. After three doses, it is followed by a dose of an active purgative.

POETRY.

ART. 32.—*A poetical Petition against Tractorising Trumpery, and the Perkinistic Institution. In four Cantos. Most respectfully addressed to the Royal College of Physicians, by Christopher Caustic, M.D. LL.D. ASS. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Aberdeen, and Honorary-Member of no less than nineteen very learned Societies. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Hurst. 1803.*

We formerly remarked, that, on the publication of Dr. Haygarth's work, it was not impolitically alleged by Dr. Perkins, that there was not the slightest collusion between him and that author. On the present occasion, we see more striking symptoms that the poem is an attack of a friend in disguise. Yet the author deals his blows around with such *causticity*, sparing neither friend nor foe, from the 'indelible ink' of Dr. Lettsom, and the kindred 'jingle of Matilda's lyre,' to Dr. Darwin, tracing organised molecules from slaughtered armies to tribes of insects, and thence again to the nobler animals, through the

profoundest parts of the bathos, and the sublimest of the hupsos, that his real object cannot be always ascertained. We think him, however, the friend to the tractors, and peculiarly severe against Dr. Haygarth and Dr. Lettsom.

Our author's knowledge seems to be extensive; and he is by no means sparing of his communications: his descriptions are animated, and sometimes poetical; but his wit often borders too much on punning; and the whole is too extensive. *Quidquid præcipies, esto brevis*, is a precept of Horace, and is peculiarly applicable to smart satire. Convulsions, it is said, may be produced by tickling. Scientific and professional humour is not generally attractive, because not generally understood. As we wish to steer clear of controversy, we shall select a specimen which, we trust, will give no offence.

' But, hark ! what means that moaning sound !
That thunder rumbling under ground !
What mean these blue sulphureous flashes,
That make us all turn pale as ashes.

' Why in the air this dreadful drumming,
As though the devil himself were coming,
Provok'd by magical impostors,
To carry off a doctor Faustus !

' Why scream the bats ! why hoot the owls !
While Darwin's midnight bull-dog howls !
Say, what portends this mighty rumpus,
To fright our senses out of compass ;

' 'Tis Radcliffe's sullen sprite, now rising,
To warn you by a sight surprising,
More solemn than a curtain lecture,
Or Monk-y Lewis' Spanish Spectre !

' Now, in a sort of moody mutter,
These awful sounds I hear him utter,
Which make my heart to beat and thwack it,
And burst the buttons off my jacket.

" 'Tis not from motives of endearment
That I have burst my marble cearment ;
No ; I'm from Hades, in a hurry,
To make above ground one d—d flurry !

" Arm'd, as the dread occasion urges,
With *Ate's* borrow'd snakes and scourges,
I come to rouse ye into action,
To crush the Perkinizing faction.

" I'll batter ye with Pluto's bludgeon,
Unless to battle you now budge on,
And make more bluster with your train,
Than devils in a hurricane !

" I'll drive ye down"—but dawning day
Bids bullying phantom hie away ;
While horror makes each hair stand stedfast,
Like quill of hedgehog in our head fast !' P. 31.

It is, indeed, the burden of the song, that the tractors are to ruin the physician.

ART. 33.—*John and Dame; or, the loyal Cottagers: by Mr. Pratt: to which are added interesting Particulars of the History of John and Dame.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Phillips. 1803.

The loyalty and affecting simplicity of this little story render it much more attractive than its poetry: yet the latter, in the pathetic strain, merits our commendation. It sometimes, however, partakes of the lullaby; and, affecting peculiar and minute simplicity, is occasionally puerile.

The story occurs in the second volume of Mr. Pratt's *Gleanings*. The conclusion of that work has reached us, and is under consideration.

NOVELS, &c.

ART. 34.—*Frederick Montravers, or The adopted Son: a Novel. By Sophia Woodfall.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Crosby and Co.

We had flattered ourselves that the race of novelists was improving; but have, we find, been mistaken. The present work can be characterised only by negatives—without characters, without conduct, without interest or probability, it will not even strut its little hour. We trust that miss Woodfall may be more successful in another character, or in another office—that her next production may not be abortive, that her son may not require adoption.

ART. 35.—*The deserted Wife: a Tale of much Truth.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Lane.

If such are the tales of truth, our novelists are spared the labour of fiction; for though, in this department, poetry is most successful, yet, in modern novels, invention seems to be an animal of slow growth, and no great activity, often distorted and rickety. As it is true, we must not blame the conduct, nor the catastrophe. The tale is, however, interesting and eventful, not often carried beyond the bounds of probability; in many parts, simple and natural. The display of so much artful villany is not, we think, in general, proper. Some may copy the lesson, and overlook the event, as boys read the fable, and pass over the moral. Though Brisac, however, is severely punished, the subordinate agents escape. Ralph and BIRTHA, indeed, fly to the continent: had it been said to France or Holland, under the protection of Buonaparte, we should have thought the punishment sufficiently severe.

ART. 36.—*Tales of an Exile: by W. F. Williams, Author of Sketches of modern Life, &c.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Lane.

The Exile is a slight bond of union for three tales, light, pathetic, and not without interest or instruction: yet they possess not any striking merit, either in the display of character, in situation, or language.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 37.—*A Reply to the Anguis in Herba of the Rev. James Hook, M. A. and F. S. A. Containing a Refutation of his Defence of Pluralities, Non-residence, and the Employment of Substitutes by the beneficed Clergy. By a Member of the established Church.* 8vo. 2s. Mawman. 1803.

Mr. Hook's arguments are fairly refuted in this work, though much school-boy Latin is introduced, which neither assists the reasoning, nor gives any embellishment to the composition. The author wishes for a new survey of the value of livings, which would tend to the improvement of those of inferior worth, and prove the little need there is of the combination of livings in one person, too frequently to be met with in many dioceses. He would also recommend to the legislature to order that more than one living, of a certain value, should not be held by the same incumbent; yet even in livings calculated at less than a hundred a-year, which he thinks have a fairer shew of argument in their favour for combination, he conceives, and with reason, that the person who does the duty is entitled to the profits. There cannot be a doubt that the present system of non-residence is a great evil: it has led to the shameful advertisements and sales of livings in coffee-houses, where they are often treated as mere sporting boxes; and a neglect of ancient discipline has been the consequence. The author of this pamphlet sees the evil in its true light; and he argues with due zeal for the church, of which he is a judicious advocate.

ART. 38.—*A Sketch of the Character of Dr. John Erskine, one of the Ministers of the Old Gray Friars Church of Edinburgh, who died on the 19th of January, 1803; being the concluding Part of a Sermon delivered in that Church, on the Lord's Day immediately after his Funeral. By Thomas Davidson, D. D. &c.* 8vo. 6d. No London Bookseller's Name. 1803.

Dr. J. Erskine was a worthy man and a celebrated preacher. He had, it seems, a very exalted idea of his profession; for he was persuaded, that, 'in respect of dignity of utility and of personal satisfaction, the ministerial function, rightly discharged, is to be placed above the most splendid secular employments.' Such an opinion may very properly justify the small salaries paid to the ministers of the church of Scotland. The panegyrist also informs us, that, in a moment, this good man's spirit 'was, by that Almighty power which raised Christ from the dead, made perfect, and immediately conveyed, by ministering angels, into the joyful presence of his exalted Saviour. There he hath met an universal welcome; there he hath received the most significant testimonies to his labours in the Lord.' The writer is, we presume, a Swedenborgian, and has received this information, by post, from the heavenly regions; but, however well it might suit a friar extolling the praises of the favourite saint of a country-village, such language ill becomes the modesty of a protestant pulpit.

ART. 39.—*A Letter to the Rt. Hon. Charles Abbot, Speaker of the House of Commons, containing an Inquiry into the most effectual Means of the Improvement of the Coasts and Western Isles of Scotland, and the Extension of the Fisheries. With a Letter from Dr. Anderson to the Author, on the same Subject. By Robert Fraser, Esq. 8vo. 3s. sewed. G. and W. Nicol. 1803.*

Mr. Frazer offers many arguments in opposition to the plan of what is called the Caledonian canal, from Murray Frith to Fort William. We cannot judge of the force of these arguments; but they appear to us satisfactory; and, after that very judicious canal of Crinan, joined to the communication between Glasgow and Edinburgh, the Caledonian canal appears to us unnecessary. Mr. Frazer proposes another from Saltcoats to Edinburgh (to the south of the former), passing through the northern part of Lanerkshire, which is very rich in coals, that may be conveyed to Edinburgh at an easy rate.

The great object, however, of this letter is to propose the abolition of the duty on salt, in order to assist the establishment of fisheries. This is undoubtedly a measure that would be highly salutary, and indeed alone sufficient, for the prosperity of the Highlands, as well as various branches of manufacture. It is, however, a financial object of such importance, that we greatly fear, at the present moment, the duty cannot be given up. Could it, however, take place, Mr. Frazer supposes that would occasion emigrations from America.

ART. 40. — *Additions to the Elements of general Knowledge, inserted in the second Edition. By Henry Kett, B. D. &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1802.*

It was scarcely necessary to print these additions in a separate form. The author's portfolio will easily furnish him with a similar number, as long as readers are to be caught by the attractive title of the Elements of general Knowledge. One addition, on the subject of the mathematics, is too honourable to the writer to be here omitted. 'It was much my wish to have cancelled the sheet in which the note on Kepler appears, as it is replete with typographical errors, and my own incorrect notions of the subject.' These additions are not wholly free from inaccuracies. 'The odd hours and minutes which complete the year' make up more than a day in the space of a century, for they make up nearly a day in four years; but, by intercalating a day, there will be an error in excess which is corrected by omitting a day every fourth century, the error produced requiring a subsequent correction. 'The old style used till September 1752' (in England, should be added), 'when the new was adopted in all the countries of Europe' (except Russia), unless Mr. Kett has expunged Russia from the map of Europe, or his list of Christians.

ART. 41. — *Addisoniana. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Philips. 1803.*

This selection is peculiar. It neither consists of the conversation of Addison, of his minuter works, nor of extracts from his publications. It

is all, however, *about* Addison. The same story is told in different ways, and every work unmercifully pillaged that relates to him. We have lately enlarged so much on this subject, that little remains to be said on it, except that the print and paper are truly excellent.

ART. 42. — *The Christian Character exemplified, from the Papers of Mrs. Margaret Magdalen A——s, late Wife of Mr. Frederick Charles A——s, of Goodman's Fields. Selected and revised by John Newton.* 12mo. 2s. Boards. Ogle. 1803.

Mrs. A——s left behind her ten quires closely written, containing an account of the events of her life, with religious remarks. She had been a servant, and seems to have filled her station as well as that she afterwards occupied, as mistress of a family, with great prudence and discretion. We cannot, however, discover the propriety of these memoirs being published, and particularly by a minister of the established church.

ART. 43. — *A Journal of a short Excursion among the Swiss Landscapes. Made in the Summer of the Year 1794.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1803.

The excursion is short, and the journal meagre. We find nothing that has not been often repeated in a much better style, and more satisfactorily, in other works. The quotations from Saussure, &c. are greatly disproportioned to the short remarks of the author; and the observations on Roman and Grecian history, suggested by reading Plutarch's Lives in the evening, form a singular and grotesque miscellany.

ART. 44. — *The Farmer and Gardener's Directory, containing the most approved Rules and Directions for foretelling the Changes, which take Place in the Weather; with Observations on the Barometer, Thermometer, Hygrometer, and Rain-Guage.* 12mo. 1s. Scatcherd.

These rules, as dictated by experience, are sometimes judicious; but several important ones are omitted; and we find many by far too trite and trivial to merit any record.

ART. 45. — *The Encyclopædia of Vocal Humour: being Songs of Wit and Whim: many of them Originals.* 12mo. 2s. Thurgood. 1802.

Like all books of this description, the present volume contains a selection of the newest songs which have been introduced at the places of public amusement. The songster will find some of them not destitute of humour, and the other requisites for promoting conviviality.